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ESSENTIALS

IN

EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

THE ROMAN WALL¹

(FRONTISPIECE)

THE picture shows the Romans repairing part of the Great Wall built by the Emperor Hadrian early in the second century A.D. The wall extended from Wallsend on the Tyne to Bowness on the Solway, a distance of about seventy-three miles and a half. The Romans are here represented as employing British labor on the Wall. The stonemasons are at work under the directions of a Roman centurion; an occasional arrow from Pictish marauders in the bushes outside keeps the workers in a state of anxiety, while the bownen on the wall retaliate. In constructing the wall the Romans used wedge-shaped stones for the outer part. They filled up the inner part with rubble and mortar, the thin end of the wedge-shaped stones being inside; the mortar as it was poured in welded the inner and outer parts together into a solid whole. A tower, castellum, is shown in the middle distance. One of these towers occurred at intervals of a mile along the whole length of the wall, and there were also smaller towers at a distance of two hundred yards from each other.

In the camp below is shown the general of the garrison, with a detachment of troops, conducting an embassy of "Winged Hats" or Norsemen round the fortifications. They are much interested in a catapult which has just arrived in camp.

 $^{^1}$ Reproduced by permission from the picture by H. J. Ford. (Longmans' Historical Wall Pictures.)





THE ROMAN WALL

ESSENTIALS

IN

EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

BV

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SECOND EDITION

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[W·D·O]

NORWOOD · MASS·U·S·A

DEDICATED TO THE MEMORY OF MY FATHER. SAMUEL BURNETT HOWE, Ph. D.

CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS AT SCHENECTADY, NEW YORK
FOR THIRTY-SEVEN YEARS; WHOSE SYMPATHETIC INTEREST
AND ENCOURAGEMENT WERE OF INESTIMABLE
VALUE IN THE WRITING OF THIS BOOK



PREFACE

The recommendations of the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association and the appearance of the New York State Regents' Syllabus in History have encouraged the author to offer these essentials in early European history for Part I of the course in Modern History. There are several excellent manuals for Part II, but at this writing this is the only text yet published for Part I.

In the selection of these essentials, many details formerly deemed vital to a knowledge of history have been purposely omitted in an attempt to mirror the customs and life of the people and to explain the meaning of the great economic, social, and political movements of ancient, medieval, and early modern times, always having in mind their influence on present civilization. The author will be glad to receive constructive criticism.

The author desires to acknowledge the assistance given him in the preparation of this book by the following persons: Dr. James Harvey Robinson of Columbia University, Dr. Livingston Rowe Schuyler of Columbia University, Dean Benjamin H. Ripton of Union College, Dr. Frank S. Hoffman of Union College, Dr. J. H. Logan of Rutgers College, Dr. D. C. Knowlton of the Newark, N.J., High School, Dr. H. M. Maxson, City Superintendent of Schools, Plainfield, N.J., Superintendent I. W. Travell of Morristown, N.J., Mr. Harold F. Biddle of the Morristown, N.J., High School, Miss Grace E. Per Lee of the Cortland, N.Y., State Normal

Faculty (now Mrs. Harry Howe of Sioux Falls, S.D.), Mr. C. H. Douglas of Boston, Mass., Mr. G. H. Fisher, Jr., of Plainfield, N.J., and my associates here — Miss E. K. Cumming, Miss Esther Egerton, and Miss Cornelia Lounsbury. To the last-named I am indebted for many of the maps. I desire also to make acknowledgment for the use of illustrative material found in Longmans' "Historical Pictures," Gardiner's "Students' History of England," Grant's "European History," Bourne's "Medieval and Modern History," Woodburn and Moran's "American History," Becchetti's "Restorations of the Roman Forum," "Kunst und Geschichte," and the collections of the Metropolitan Museum.

SAMUEL BURNETT HOWE

PLAINFIELD, N.J., SEPTEMBER 1, 1912

CONTENTS

	INTRODUCTION	
2. R	Vature and methods of historical study	3 4 5
	CHAPTER ONE	
	THE ANCIENT MEDITERRANEAN WORLD	
5. E 6. T 7. So 8. T 9. T	the beginnings of history arly Egypt the second period of Egyptian greatness ocial conditions in the later empire of Egypt the Tigris-Euphrates region the Semitic kingdoms of western Asia Minor the Mycenean civilization in Crete and Greece the East at the close of the Babylonian supremacy. A	10 14 15 16 19 21
11. 1.	summary	23
	CHAPTER TWO	
	. THE RISE OF THE GREEK CITY STATES	
13. TI 14. TI 15. S _I 16. Es 17. TI 18. W	he physiography of Greece he Homeric age he period of colonization parta arly Athens he rise of Persia Vars between the Greeks and Persians. ummary of early Greek history	25 27 29 33 35 37 39 42
	CHAPTER THREE	
	THE ATHENIAN AND MACEDONIAN EMPIRES	
21. Po 22. At 23. At	rigin of the Athenian empire	44 45 48 52 55

		PAG
	Macedon and Alexander the Great	5
	The Hellenic world after the death of Alexander	60
27.	Summary of the splendor and decay of Hellas	6
	CHAPTER FOUR	
	THE BEGINNINGS OF ROME	
28.	Early Italy and its inhabitants	66
20.	The legends of old Rome	70
зó.	Primitive Roman society	7
31.	The religion of the early Romans	73
32.	Establishment of Republic	75
33.	Establishment of Roman supremacy in Italy	75
34.	Italy and the conquest of the Mediterranean	79
35∙	Summary of early Roman bistory	8:
	CHAPTER FIVE	
	THE CHANGE FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE	
36.	The relations between classes	85
37.	The relations between Rome and her subjects	87
38.	Plans to correct these evils	88
39.	Civil strife between Marius and Sulla	91
40.	The rise of Pompey	94
41.	The rise of Julius Caesar	96
42.	The rule of Julius Caesar	99
43.	Summary of the change from republic to empire	101
	CHAPTER SIX	
	THE ROMAN EMPIRE	
44.	The empire a settled fact	105
45.	A summary of the political history of the early empire	110
46.	Social conditions during the early empire	113
47.	The reorganized empire	119
48.	The break-up of the empire	125
49.	The Byzantine empire	127
50.	A summary of the history of the Roman empire	130
	CHAPTER SEVEN	
	THE GERMAN KINGDOMS AND THE PAPACY	
51.	The rise of the papacy	132
52.	The rise of monasticism	134
53.	The Frankish kingdom	136
54.	The rise of Islam	139
		-

	CONTENTS	хi
55. 56. 57.	Charlemagne's life and work	143 148 150
	CHAPTER EIGHT	
	EMPIRE AND PAPACY	
58. 59. 60. 61. 62. 63.	The growth of the medieval empire The question of church reform Pope Gregory VII's struggle with the empire The papacy and the Hohenstaufen emperors The Crusades The triumph of the papacy and the end of the medieval empire The organization of the medieval church Summary of the empire and the papacy	153 154 156 158 160 166 167
	CHAPTER NINE	
	ENGLAND IN THE EARLY MIDDLE AGES	
66. 67. 68. 69. 70. 71. 72. 73. 74.	Britain Saxon England Conversion of England The England of Alfred the Great The close of the Saxon period of English history Norman England Effects of the Norman Conquest Feudalism Summary of early English history	173 176 180 183 186 190 193 195
	CHAPTER TEN	
	ENGLAND UNDER THE PLANTAGENETS	
75. 76. 77. 78.	Henry II and the re-establishment of a strong government. Henry II and Thomas Becket Struggle between the Angevins and the Capetians for supremacy in France Magna Carta The birth of the House of Commons	200 201 203 207 209
8 0.	The reign of Edward I	210
81.	Summary of Plantagenet England	212
	CHAPTER ELEVEN	
0.	LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES	
	Life on the manor	215 219

	٠	٠
v	¥	Ŧ
л	1	1

CONTENTS

		PAGE
84. 85.	Medieval commerce	223 227
86.	Medieval education	231
87.	Medieval languages and their literatures	236
88.	Summary of the life of the middle ages	239
	CHAPTER TWELVE	
	THE CLOSE OF THE MIDDLE AGES	
89. 90. 91. 92.	The Hundred Years' War	242 249 252 255
93. 94. 95.	The renaissance	261 269 273
	CHAPTER THIRTEEN	
	THE PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION	
96. 97. 98. 99. 100. 101. 102. 103.	Europe at the opening of the Protestant Reformation Germany on the eve of the Protestant revolution Life and work of Martin Luther to the Diet of Worms The Diet of Worms and its consequences Charles V and the Protestant revolt Protestantism in France. The Catholic Reformation and the Jesuits The revolt of the Netherlands The Reformation in England Summary of the era of the Protestant Reformation	276 279 282 285 287 289 292 293 295 303
	CHAPTER FOURTEEN	
	THE RISE OF MODERN ENGLAND	
106.	THE RISE OF MODERN ENGLAND The Tudor monarchy	305
107.	Extension of national power abroad	306
.8o	The rise of Puritanism	311
109.	Social and economic conditions under the Tudors	312
io.	Division between king and parliament	315
III.	Civil war and the commonwealth	319
112.	Restoration and revolution	323
113.	England and the continent	326
114.	England and Ireland	332
115.	Social conditions under the Stuarts	333
110.	Summary of the rise of modern England	336

xiii

CONTENTS

CHAPTER FIFTEEN

COLONIAL ENGLAND	
	PAGE
Explorations and early settlements before Jamestown	342
Virginia, a typical Southern colony	344
Other Southern colonies	349
The Massachusetts settlements	352
Development of American institutions in New England	358
New York under the Dutch and English	364
The end of New France	370
The middle colonies in the eighteenth century	372
Summary. The colonies in 1760	378
	Explorations and early settlements before Jamestown Virginia, a typical Southern colony Other Southern colonies The Massachusetts settlements Development of American institutions in New England New York under the Dutch and English The end of New France The middle colonies in the eighteenth century

CHAPTER SIXTEEN

TH	E ASCENDANCY	\mathbf{OF}	FRANCE	AND	THE	AGE	OF	LOUIS	FOURTEE	NTH
- 26	Dichelien and	the	ectablich	ment	of th	ie ah	coli	ita moi	norchy	282

120.	Richened and the establishment of the absorate monarchy	302
127.	Louis XIV and his court	386
128.	Colbert and the French people	390
129.	Louis XIV's wars	392
130.	England and France at the close of the reign of Louis XIV	394
131.	A summary of early European history	396
Appr	ENDIX I. Important Events in Early European History	401
Appr	ENDIX II. A Select List of Books including those referred to in	•
th	e Suggestions for Further Reading	405



LIST OF MAPS AND PLANS

	PAGE
Two Wonderful River Valleys. (Colored)facing	10
Greece and her Colonies	32
Plan of Athens	34
Empire of Alexander the Great	59
The World as known about the Time of Christ	63
Early Italy	67
Map of the City of Rome	85
Greatest Extent of Roman Power	118
The Roman Empire. (Colored)facing	124
The Main Migrations of the Germanic Tribes, 150-600	126
Europe in the Hands of the Germanic Tribes. (Colored)facing	132
Italy in 814	138
The Saracen Dominion at its Greatest Extent. (Colored)facing	142
The Empire of Charlemagne in 814, with the Three Subdivisions	
made in 843	149
Extent of the Hohenstaufen Empire about 1180. (Colored)facing	159
The Mediterranean World in the days of the Crusades. (Colored)	
facing	160
British Isles and Northern France in the Time of William I.	
(Colored)facing	193
Plan of a Medieval Manor	216
Comparative Maps showing the Hindrances to Medieval Com-	
merce	224
Plan of a Medieval Castle	229
Plan of a Temple, Basilica, and Cathedral	233
Comparison of the World To-day with the World of Columbus's	
Time	270
Dominions of Charles V and his Brother Ferdinand Prior to 1555.	
(Colored)facing	276
Division of England, January, 1643	320
Western Europe in 1660. (Colored)facing	328
The Charters of 1606 and 1609	345
The Middle and Southern Colonies	350
The New England Colonies	356
America at the Opening of the Seven Years' War	370
America at the Close of the Seven Years' War	373
Terms of the Peace of Utrecht. (Colored)facing	302

LIST OF CHARTS AND GENEALOGICAL TABLES

	PAGE
The Government of Rome in the Times of the Kings	72
The Government of Rome During the Republican Period	103
Table to Illustrate the Hundred Years' War	245
Table to Illustrate the Wars of the Roses	253
Three Hundred Years of English Rulers with Their Principal Con-	
temporaries	275
Table of Protestant Groups in England	319
A Table of English Rulers	3 41
Chart Showing Principal Matters to be Remembered about the	
Intercolonial Wars, 1680-1763.	360

EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY



EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

INTRODUCTION

1. Nature and Methods of Historical Study. - History is What is Hisa record of the life of mankind. In its broadest sense it includes all that has influenced man as well as all that man has ever done, written, or even thought. In studying history it is necessary to limit attention to those periods 1 concerning which there remain sources of information. Historical sources are of many kinds: books which record the events of Sources of certain times; carvings and inscriptions on buildings or statues: remnants of costumes, implements, buildings, etc.; even the remains of the dead. From a study of such sources scholars are enabled to construct an account of how man lived at different stages of his development.

History

studying History

We study history chiefly to understand what is going on in Reasons for the world. We must learn not only how things have happened. but also why they have so happened. By getting this information we strengthen the memory. When we put together various related facts and bits of information in order to understand why things happened in a particular way, we are training our reasoning powers. History trains the memory and reasoning faculty and fits us to take part in the political affairs of our country. There are different ways of

¹ For convenience, historians have been accustomed to divide the field of history into periods. Ancient history extends from earliest historic times until the ancestors of the German race became the masters of Europe (800 A.D.). Modern history deals with the period since 800 A.D. The first six hundred years of modern history are sometimes called the middle ages. This book on Early European history begins with a study of the civilizations of the East that have influenced modern history and traces the progress of culture among the Greeks, Romans, and Teutons through ancient, medieval, and early modern times to the middle of the eighteenth century A.D.

Methods of Historical Study studying history. The simplest or text-book method involves a close study of one or more manuals, together with questions and answers in class, or written tests and examinations. Another method requires the use of a series of topics embodying the essential features of a certain period. Upon these topics, in the form of an outline or syllabus, the student builds up his knowledge of the period studied by reading extracts from the various authorities, source-books, and manuals to which he has been referred.¹

Physiography

2. Relation between History and Other Fields of Knowledge. — The relation between history and physical geography is very close. Climate, rainfall,2 and the character of the soil have always been important factors in determining the occupations and social relations of man. Culture first began in warm climates and in lands whose soil was very fertile. The earliest historic races were those which first began to cultivate their lands. Their nearness to large bodies of water, by offering opportunities for commerce and the interchange of ideas, gave certain nations an earlier civilization than their neighbors. The adaptability of the soil of certain countries to particular crops has often moulded history to a far-reaching extent. For example, the soil of Virginia is well adapted to the cultivation of tobacco. This led to the importation of slaves from Africa to cultivate the crop, and thus shaped the history of our own country.

Economics and Industrial History Economics, which treats of the industries and wealthusing activities of man, is closely related to political history. The growth of the cotton industry increased slavery and gave rise to several of our gravest political questions, such as

² Too much rainfall has never proved conducive to a high degree of culture. On the other hand, lands with little or no rainfall have seldom been the scenes of a high state of civilization.

¹ An authority in history is a standard work prepared by one or more eminent scholars from a study of the sources or of earlier authorities. A source-book is a collection of accounts of historic events or movements in the words of the contemporary writer of these accounts (primary source) or of some writer who lived some time after the events occurred, but who was in a position to know considerable about the events (secondary source). This work is an example of a manual.

emancipation and the tariff. Historians are beginning to realize the importance of the industrial side of history.

There is much dispute concerning the origin of the different Ethnology races of mankind. People formerly thought that all the races which speak one of the so-called Aryan or Indo-European group of languages had a common origin. To this group belong Greek, Latin, German, and even the ancient language of India.

The most recent conclusion is that neither similarity of language nor even marked physical features, such as color, enable us to classify the races of man.

3. Primitive Man. — From the earliest times, even before The Hunting the dawn of historical knowledge, it is assumed that great and Fishing migrations of peoples of diverse physical characteristics have taken place successively in all parts of the world. The earliest inhabitants of Europe of whom we have any remains were little if any above the beasts of the forest in intelligence. They lived in caves along river banks, in the tree tops of the vast continental forests, or in rudely constructed shelters built upon piles in the mountain lakes. They were engaged in a constant struggle for existence against the savage animals of those days, beasts much larger, more plentiful, and more ferocious than their modern descendants. For thousands of years they had no knowledge of fire. Their only weapons were rough pieces of stone; their only occupation to keep themselves alive. Clothing they did not need, as they were covered with shaggy hair, as are animals. Their only foods were the flesh of beasts which they killed by superior cunning, or fish caught with their hands or on rude bone hooks in the rivers and brooks, and also in season the wild fruits and nuts of the forest.

Stage

Countless centuries after man's first appearance on earth, Discovery of some experimenter struck two stones together in such a man- Fire ner that sparks of fire flashed forth. This invention, more wonderful than that of wireless telegraphy, at once marked a distinction between man and animal. 1 Man learned to cook his food and heat his dwelling place. He now had

¹ E. B. Tylor questions the possibility of races living without fire.

"The Polished Stone Age"

Primitive Government

The Family

Domestication of Animals

more wants and used polished stone implements and weapons to satisfy them. He also developed a more complex language to express his wants and the beginning of what we call government, in the family relation. At first the family ties were weak, as among animals. Little by little the father gained control over the members of his family. The head of the family made rules for the government and was the sole judge of violations of these primitive rules of conduct or laws, with power of life and death over his children.

The possession of power over others brings responsibility. The father was obliged to provide food and shelter for his family. Animal parents care for their young, it is true, but this care seldom endures for many years, nor is there any considerable provision made by the parents for the later welfare of their young. In order to insure food for his family, in case that the animals should leave his part of the world for new pastures, the early hunter must either follow the retreating animals, abandoning his rude shelter for unknown scenes, or he must make captives of certain animals, feeding and maintaining them when their supply of food was exhausted. Probably it was a long time before the savage hunter thought of adopting the second of these two alternatives. For centuries, generation after generation of mankind roamed from place to place in search of food. When man began to keep herds he ceased to be a hunter and fisher and became a shepherd, — the pastoral stage of his development had begun.

The Pastoral Stage

Primitive Industries

The Clan

The Origin of Commerce

In this stage man made a tremendous stride forward in civilization. He left the caves and erected temporary dwellings of skins or of tree-bark wherever his herd wandered in search of pasturage. Industries, such as cloth-weaving and the making of rude pottery, commenced in this stage. Groups of interrelated families began to associate together, and reached the second stage of political development — the clan. Whenever wandering families met, each found the other in possession of desirable articles. A wish to exchange these articles led to barter or the beginnings of trade.

As time went on it became harder and harder to find

pasture grounds because of the constantly increasing pastoral The Agriculclans with their herds of animals. In the pastoral stage men tural Stage had not thought that the grazing grounds would ever be exhausted and therefore had sowed no fields, trusting that they would find sufficient fodder in the next halting place. Some men, wisely foreseeing that a time of scarcity was sure

to come if they made no provision for the future, settled down in one place and began to cultivate the soil. When this became the prevailing custom, man had reached the agricultural stage.

Savage man made use of the first stick or conveniently shaped stone that came to his hand for his first weapons and tools. He next chipped off pieces of flint and shaped them into axes or arrow heads, binding them



Primitive Tools and Weapons

FLINT ARROW HEAD

on the A product of the rough stone wooden handle or shaft with

thongs of leather, as did the American Indians their tomahawks. Other implements of primitive man were made of

bone, ivory, or horn. It is probable that the weapons were invented by men and the useful implements by women. While the men were hunting, the women prepared the food and clothing and made many useful inventions for family use.

CUTTING INSTRUMENT Showing the advance over the rough stone age in making instruments - the stone is smoothed and polished.

In the fourth stage man learned to make articles by hand. The word "manufacture" (from the Latin, to make by hand) was originally applied to the process of making cloth, etc., in the home by hand, whereas today the word brings up the image of machinery. In this The Handistage man became much more civilized than in craft Stage the former stages. He now lived in cities or

towns for protection and for convenience of trade. He made many articles of great intrinsic value — rare and costly plates, necklaces, and

other articles of jewelry. At first he worked in the softer metals, and for centuries employed bronze, an alloy of copper and tin capable of taking a keen cutting edge, for his swords and war implements.

The Bronze Age To secure protection from the marauding pastoral peoples who surrounded them, the town dwellers built walls around their dwellings. Gradually the cluster of houses within the wall assumed a regular arrangement into streets; public buildings, temples for the worship of their divinities, gathering places for those who made their laws, and market stalls were erected. Family government gave place to rule by the elders of the clan and then to tribal government, in which the clan elders chose a leader to govern the group of the clans or the tribe and



A BOAT OF THE EARLY EGYPTIANS
Picture of a model found in a tomb in Egypt.

acted themselves as a deliberative and advisory body. Several tribes frequently united to found a city—the city-state of antiquity, which will be explained in a later chapter.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

What further reasons can be given for the study of history? Why should history be studied sympathetically? Which method of history study do you prefer? Why? Give additional instances of the influence of physiography on history. Make a list in your note-books of the Aryan languages, showing the groups into which they may be divided. Compare the occupations of primitive man and woman.

REFERENCE READINGS

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ILLUSTRATIVE FICTION

Jack London, Before Adam: Macmillan. Stanley Waterloo, The Story of Ab: Doubleday, Page Co.

CHAPTER I

THE ANCIENT MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

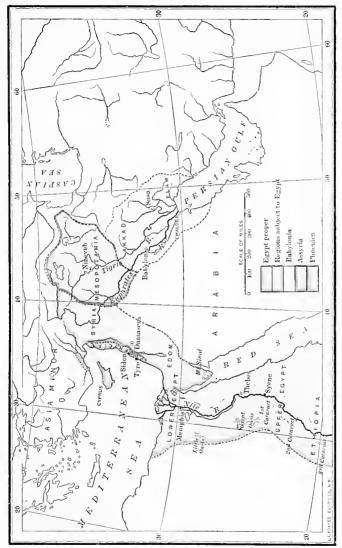
Two Wonderful River Valleys

The Nile

4. The Beginnings of History. — The study of ancient history begins with a brief review of the civilizations which sprang up in two wonderful river valleys of the old world. The river Nile has its origin in Central Africa, flowing northward hundreds of miles and emptying into the Mediterranean In the lower part of this river valley was developed one of the two earliest civilized states. In this narrow valley the majestic river, swollen with the rains of tropical Africa, pours out over its low banks in June, flooding the level fields on each side for miles and leaving a rich deposit of fertile loam. When the river recedes in the fall, the natives are enabled to harvest abundant crops with little toil of preparation. This annual inundation of the Nile has from earliest antiquity made of this valley a rich grain producing land, abundantly able to support a large population, within its long and narrow limits. The change from earlier hunting and fishing habits of the inhabitants of this region to the agricultural stage of civilization in very early times made necessary their organization under laws and regulations and hence gave rise to one of the first two great states.

The Tigris-Euphrates In Asia another great river system favored the growth of a state. The waters of the Tigris-Euphrates system were carried by means of irrigation over the level fields of Chaldea, as the lower valley of this system was called; and, as in the case of Egypt, the people of this region were bountifully supplied with the food elements necessary to the building up of a great state.

Antiquity of Egyptian Civ5. Early Egypt. — While man had existed in the lower valley of the Nile for thousands of years before joining himself with his fellows to form a state, the records show that

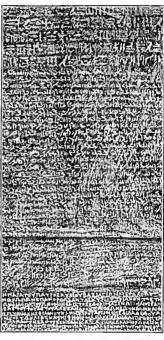


TWO WONDERFUL RIVER VALLEYS



as early as 5000 B.C. the Egyptians had advanced along political and social lines and had organized several small states in different sections of the valley. Our knowledge of

early Egyptian history. based on inscriptions called hieroglyphs found upon ruined buildings, was enormously increased by the discovery of a tablet, the Rosetta Stone, which contains a royal decree written in the Egyptian characters and also in Greek. From a knowledge of the Greek language it was possible to gain the meaning of the various hieroglyphs on the tablet, and in this way other inscriptions in the Egyptian language have been translated, until we know that a family of Pharaohs (kings) made Egypt a united state about 3400 B.C. Making their capital at Memphis, near modern Cairo, they constructed huge masses of stone for their tombs and erected many massive temples. These tombs, or pyramids, are the admiration of the modern world, and must have required an extensive knowledge of engineering for their erection.



Rosetta Stone

Pyramids

A SECTION OF THE ROSETTA STONE

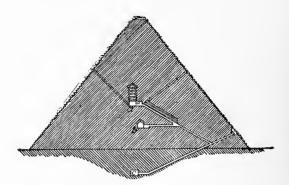
The Rosetta Stone was discovered on the banks of the Rosetta branch of the Nile by soldiers of Napoleon on his Egyptian campaign, and was translated by Champollion, a celebrated French scholar. It is now treasured at the British Museum in London.

The early Egyptians were advanced not only in architecture and engineering: in the museum at Berlin is treasured an

12 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

Ptahhotep

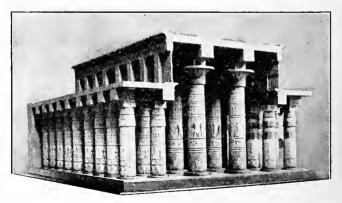
old manuscript, perhaps the oldest book in the world, which contains a number of wise sayings attributed to Ptahhotep, a high-born Egyptian of six thousand years ago. Among



SECTION OF GREAT PYRAMID

a, King's chamber; b, Queen's chamber; c, chamber cut in rock.

other things he says, "If thou hast become great after having been little — harden not thy heart. Thou art only become steward of the good things of God." In this and other



Section of the Temple of Karnak From the restoration in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

proverbs this ancient wise man shows that he and his people had reached a high degree of civilization and recognized the duty of each man to his fellow man.

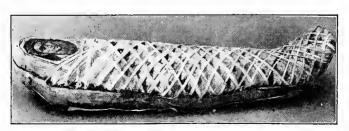


SPHINX AND PYRAMIDS

Situated at Gizeh, these pyramids are the most famous in all Egypt. Near them is the equally well-known Sphinx — a gigantic lion with a human head, carved from a great rock.

In religion the Egyptians were superior to many ancient Egyptian peoples. Although they worshipped a multitude of gods personifying the powers of nature and lowered themselves at times even to a degraded animal worship, the better classes

Religion

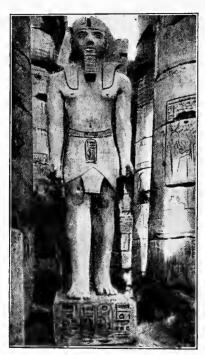


A MUMMY CASE This shows the care the Egyptians took of the dead.

believed in the immortality of the soul and perhaps in the resurrection of the body. The Egyptians were more moral, more conscientious, and more humanitarian than any other people of ancient times.

The Hyksos

6. The Second Period of Egyptian Greatness. — About 2000 B.C. the native rulers of Egypt were overthrown by the



STATUE OF RAMESES

To him has been attributed the building of the Temple of Karnak.

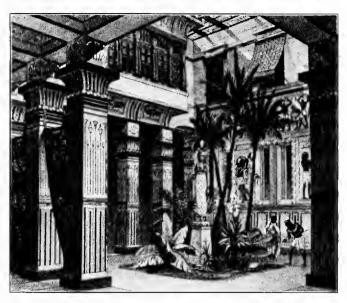
Hyksos, a mysterious people who seem to have come out of Asia Minor and to have been of the same racial origin as the Hebrews. For two hundred years the Hyksos were the dominant race.2 This period was one of utmost importance. marked the beginnings of commerce between the civilized Egyptians and the peoples of Asia Minor, which was to be carried later to the shores of Greece and to stimulate commerce

¹ The Egyptians took great care to embalm the bodies of the dead in order that the mummy of the dear one might be preserved from decay until the gods saw fit to call its soul back to occupy it. They believed that the dead had to undergo a trial before being

admitted to the better world, and that the good deeds were weighed in a balance against the bad.

² It is possible that during this period wandering clans of Semitic origin came down into Egypt as related in the story of Genesis, and that the restored native rulers treated them harshly.

there. The Hyksos were finally driven out and a new Egyptian dynasty of Pharaohs began at Thebes, that adopted The Theban a policy of conquest and gained control over western Asia Pharaohs to the Euphrates. These rulers also built magnificent temples at Thebes and Karnak, whose ruins still stand as



INTERIOR OF AN EGYPTIAN NOBLE'S HOME

The open court with its great pillars and decorative art was a prominent feature.

the supreme type of Egyptian architecture. But their long wars exhausted the resources of Egypt, and after only three centuries of renewed vigor, she fell into decay, never to regain her former glory.

7. Social Conditions in the Later Empire of Egypt. - Classes of Egypt was the first country of history to have a feudal system Society of landholding. The entire country was considered the personal property of the king, to be distributed by him to his

favorites as he wished, in return for services rendered. The government was absolute monarchy strongly influenced by the priesthood. Revolutions and consequent changes of dynasty were not infrequent, owing to the power of the noble class. Over a quarter of the land of Egypt was reserved to the gods; that is, its income went to support the priesthood and to keep up the worship. The priests formed a highly educated and politically powerful class and had charge of such public education as existed. There were all the social classes that are found in modern society, but real merit could win its way in any class, so that many a poor boy with the favor of Pharaoh won his way into important government positions.

Occupations

Among the people were occupations similar to those of today. There were physicians, clerks, storekeepers, and



OLDEST MEDICAL PRESCRIPTION IN THE WORLD

Dr. Max Müller considers this a copy of a formula for a skin lotion.

trained mechanics, while among the laborers existed a crude sort of union. We find records of a strike against oppressive labor conditions. The women of Egypt enjoyed far greater advantages and more equality with men than did the women of ancient peoples. When we remember that this civilization existed in flourishing condition for at least four thousand years, and that two thousand years ago the forefathers of most Americans of today were savages, clad in the skins of

wild beasts and roaming the forests of Europe, we must give to the Egyptians a due amount of admiration.

8. The Tigris-Euphrates Region. — Our knowledge of the

early inhabitants of this region is more fragmentary than Chaldea that of Egypt. The Chaldeans made their records not on the rock walls of temples, but on clay tablets baked in the Chaldean Civform of bricks, and few of these have been preserved. The University of Pennsylvania has during recent years directed the work of exploration throughout this region and many new records have been found and translated. These and former records indicate that even before the political union of Egypt various powerful cities had grown up on the plains of the lower Tigris-Euphrates. Their inhabitants 1 used a system of hieroglyphs called cuneiform because of the peculiar wedge-shaped characters employed. They understood the science of irrigation and many of their mathematical and astronomical discoveries seemed marvellous to the people of later times.2

Antiquity of ilization

From 2000 to 1300 B.C. the Chaldeans 3 gained an ascend- Babylonian ancy over all of Asia Minor. Their capital was Babylon. Under Hammurabi (1900 B.C.) this city became famous for its commercial undertakings and its accurate astronomical researches showed an advanced state of civilization. murabi's code of laws is the oldest legal code in existence, antedating the Mosaic code by over a thousand years.

Supremacy

North of Chaldea between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers Assyria lay the mountainous country of Assyria, which for a period of several centuries eclipsed the more ancient state to her south. Not as fertile as Chaldea. Assyria was slower to develop her institutions, and at first was ruled from Babylon.

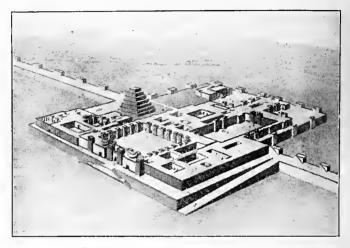
¹ The earliest inhabitants of these cities were of the yellow race and are known as Accadians or Sumerians. It is possible that the founders of the Chinese empire were colonists sent out by the Sumerians. On the shores of the Persian Gulf another people, the Elamites, allied in race to the Hyksos, had been developing strength, and the conquest of the Sumerians by this people and the subsequent fusion of the two races made a great empire out of the scattered city-states of the Tigris-Euphrates region.

² The clan of Abraham was made up of restless colonists from the city of Ur of the Chaldees.

³ The Chaldeans were a tribe of Semites which invaded Babylonia about 2000 B.C. and conquered it. The later Babylonian empire of Nebuchadnezzar was ruled by this new race.

18 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

About the time of the restored native princes in Egypt, the Assyrians made Nineveh their capital and wrested from Babylon the control of Asia Minor. They carried off the northern Ten Tribes of Israel into a captivity from which they never returned to history.



RESTORATION OF AN ASSYRIAN PALACE

The Second Chaldean or Babylonian Empire Babylonia at last regained her supremacy, and Nebuchadnezzar revived the glories of the ancient Chaldean empire (600 B.C.). He rebuilt the ancient city and beautified it with palaces and temples, and conquered the rebellious kingdom of Judea, carrying off into the Babylonian captivity this part of the Hebrew nation. The culture of this empire was remarkable. Vast libraries of the baked clay tablets have been discovered containing in the cuneiform character historical records, scientific researches, and the details of important commercial transactions. It is believed that a large part of the population of the city could both read and write, while in mathematics and science they were the foremost people of ancient times. They first used the seven day week with its one day for rest: understood and made practical use of the lever and pulley; devised a system of weights and measures; and manufactured the finest cloth materials. Their civilization was adopted by the Medes and Persians who captured Babylon and overthrew their kingdom. (See page 37.)



A BABYLONIAN TABLET
This depicts the siege of a city.

9. The Semitic Kingdoms of Western Asia Minor. — No nation is of greater importance to civilization than that of the Hebrews because of its contributions to the religious thought of the civilized nations of today. The earliest Hebrew colonists were pastoral clans from the Chaldean country who settled in Palestine about 2000 B.C. Closely akin to the other tribes of that region they lived a nomadic life for centuries before developing any political unity. After association with the neighboring Egyptian culture they established a more stable government than in the former or patriarchal days, but from the first it was theocratic — that is, they believed God was their king and that he manifested His Will to them through priests and prophets. Even after the establishment of a human monarchy the power of the priesthood was equal or superior to that of the king.

¹ It is possible that two centuries of residence in lower Egypt during the supremacy of their kinsmen, the Hyksos, had a profound influence not only upon their political growth, but also upon their religious ideas. At all events their religious rites and many of their beliefs showed strong traces of Egyptian origin.

A hereditary monarchy was established in the family of David and governed the larger part of Syria. This monarchy became divided into a northern kingdom called Israel and a southern, Judah, and the subsequent history of the Iewish

Phenicia



PILLAR OF A KING OF MOAB (850 B.C.) This was set up to commemorate a victory in war.

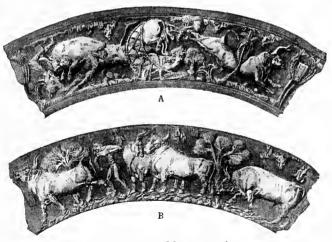
Phenician Commerce

race is a record of conquests by more powerful neighbors. West of Palestine, situated on a narrow strip of land at the foot of the Lebanon Mountains on the shore of the Mediterranean. were the two powerful city-states of the Phenicians, Tyre and Sidon. Hindered by nature from becoming an agricultural people, in order to support themselves they were forced to develop a large commerce. As early as 1600 B.C. the Phenicians had familiarized themselves with the shores of the Mediterranean and Black seas. and not long afterward their daring navigators passed beyond the Straits of Gibraltar to engage in commerce with the natives of Britain, traffick-

ing in silver, iron, tin, and lead, as well as in the spices and oils of the East. The development of commerce was the chief service of Phenicia to civilization. Phenicia became the pioneer in the carrying trade from the cultured East to the To further her commerce the Phenicians barbarous West. established trading stations and colonies along the northern coast of Africa and in Sicily and Spain, among them Carthage Phenician — destined to become the unsuccessful rival of Rome for the supremacy of the Mediterranean. It is thought that in carrying on commerce with the Egyptians the Phenicians Possible Oriborrowed from them certain hieroglyphs to take the place of the cumbersome cunciform characters which they in common with other Asiatic nations had used, and that these hieroglyphs became sound symbols, the beginnings of the alphabet. The Phenicians were a superstitious people, materially minded, with low moral standards. They developed no strong political institutions and were constantly under the influence of the stronger nations.

Colonies

gin of the Alphabet



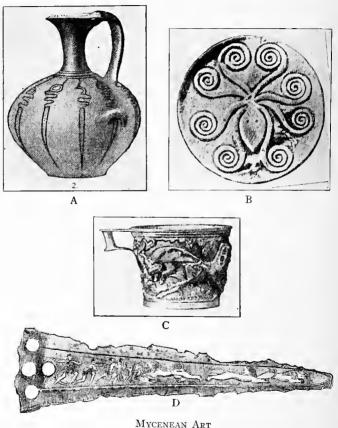
Examples of Mycenean Art

- Shows an attempt to capture wild bulls with a net.
- Shows the domesticated bulls.

10. The Mycenean Civilization in Crete and Greece. -During the last forty years, explorations in the Island of Crete and along the shores of the Egean Sea have proved the existence of a high degree of civilization in that part of the ancient world as early as 3000 B.C. Dr. Schliemann, a

22 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

celebrated German archeologist, and Dr. Evans, an English scholar, have excavated the sites of ancient cities on both the Asiatic and Greek shores of the Egean and on the Island of Crete and have unearthed ruined palaces, together with



MYCENEAN ART

- A. Vase in pottery.
- B. Gold leaf ornament.
- C. Beaker in gold.
- D. Dagger blade—decorated in silver and gold.

remains of fine pottery, vessels, and implements of gold and other metals, and numerous inscriptions. It is the opinion of archeologists that the Myceneans, so called because many of their remains have been found near the site of ancient Mycene in Greece, were a short, swarthy race who inhabited

Greece, Italy, Spain, and most of the important shores and islands of the Mediterranean from very early times until their conquest about 1000 B.C. by invading tribes. They were well advanced in civilization, peaceful, fond of jewellery and adornment. Specimens of their handicraft in the form of rings, cups, vases, and armor excite admiration for the beauty of proportion and accuracy of design. In Crete they developed a rude alphabet long before the Pheni-



LION GATE AT MYCENE

The gate was placed in the city wall at Mycene and gives an idea of prehistoric knowledge in both architecture and art.

Discoveries in Crete

cians are thought to have appropriated Egyptian hieroglyphs for their own, and according to some authorities it was from the Cretans rather than from the Egyptians that the Phenicians derived their alphabet. The ruins of their buildings are extremely massive in appearance and contain evidences of great wealth and refinement.

11. The East at the Close of Babylonian Supremacy; a Summary. — While Assyria declined, Egypt regained some of her former energy and became for a brief period one of the leading commercial nations. Foreigners, especially Greeks, were allowed to trade in Egypt and to join her mercenary troops. One Pharaoh partially restored an old canal connecting the Nile River and Red Sea and sent his fleets around Africa.

Relations between Egypt and Greece

24 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

Summary

Civilization first sprang up in the valleys of the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates rivers. Each centre developed a high degree of culture, which was carried to the Mycenean Greeks by the Phenicians, and thus has left its impress upon the history of later Greece. The Egyptians gave the doctrine of immortality of the soul and certain forms of architecture; the Hebrews taught the doctrine of monotheism; the Babylonians discovered scientific laws; the Phenicians raised commerce to the dignity of a profession and caused a transfusion of ideas throughout the Mediterranean world.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Show on an outline map of the Mediterranean world the countries, cities, rivers, and seas mentioned in the chapter and show the boundaries of Egyptian and Chaldean empires at their greatest extent. Make a synchronological chart of the chief periods and events of the ancient Mediterranean world. Make notes from the references given below concerning the origin of "the forms of household furniture, of columns, statues, weapons, seals, the use of the arch, the calendar, the alphabet, moral law, business forms."

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extracts from the sources.

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Palestine, pp. 6-7; The Orient, 600-500 B.C., p. 8.

CHAPTER II

THE RISE OF THE GREEK CITY-STATES

12. The Physiography of Greece. — Instead of separating Divisions of the various Greek tribes, the Egean Sea served to unite them Hellas in a common love of ships and of commerce, and thus furthered an early rise in civilization. Greece proper, or Hellas, is divided into Northern, Central, and Southern Greece. The latter division is also called the Peloponnesus, and contained the three important states Corinth, Laconia or Sparta, and Argolis. Of the former two states we shall hear more fully hereafter; Argolis contained the ruined cities of Mycene and Tiryns, the most splendid of the Mycenean period. In Elis were held the famous Olympian games. Central Greece contained Attica with its chief city. Famous Cities Athens, the most famous of all Greek cities; Beotia, in which were located its capital, Thebes, and the famous battlefields of Platea, Leuctra, and Chaeronea; and Phocis, containing Delphi, famed for its shrine of the god Apollo. Northern Greece was divided into the partly Greek states of Epirus and Thessalv, and was bounded on the northeast by Macedon, whose people became the dominant race in Greece.

Famous are the islands of the Egean and Ionian seas: Islands of the Ithaca, the home of Ulysses, a famous hero of Greek myth; Egean and Ionian Seas. Crete, the seat of an early and glorious culture; Delos, important in the development of Athenian empire; Lesbos, which sheltered the greatest Greek poetess, Sappho: Euboea, ravaged by the Persians in their first attack on Greece. On the western shores of Asia Minor were many Greek cities: Troy of Homer's story; Ephesus, the sacred city of the moon goddess; and Miletus, famed for her commerce. The

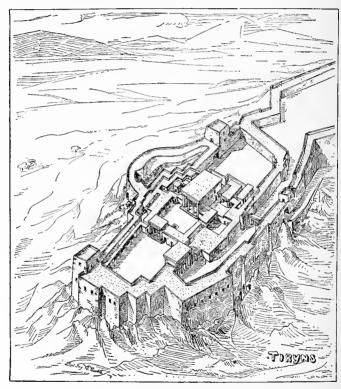
26 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

The Ionians

Greeks of Asia Minor are commonly spoken of as Ionian Greeks.

Mountains

While the seas rendered communication with distant lands not difficult, the many ranges of mountains naturally sepa-



RESTORATION OF THE PALACE OF TIRYNS

An ancient Mycenean fortification unearthed by Schliemann in 1885.

rated the Greek tribes and prevented their union. Among the most famous of these mountains were those in Thessaly. The Greeks were a commercial people because of their nearness to the sea and also because the chief agricultural prod-

ucts of Greece were particularly well adapted for commerce. Olive oil, derived from the olive groves that grew in Agricultural abundance on the sides of the hills of Greece, and wine from Products the many vineyards made ideal commercial commodities. because they represented great value in small bulk, in the times written of by the poet when he describes supreme well-being as follows: "He anointeth my head with oil: my cup [of wine] runneth over." The freedom of the Greek's life, the ease with which he could move from country to country, learning new customs and broadening his mind, undoubtedly accounts for the freedom of religious and political thought that characterized the race.

13. The Homeric Age. - Between 1500 and 1200 B.C., Achean Invaa stranger people entered Greece, called by Homer Acheans, sion These were men of a ruddy complexion and hair, larger bodied and more barbarous than the Myceneans. After a few centuries of retarded civilization, while the newcomers were picking up the ways of the people whom they had conquered. Greece progressed much faster than the other eastern Mediterranean countries. The intermarriage of races and consequent mingling of the Mycenean and Achean civilizations resulted in a complete transformation of Greek society.

Our principal sources of information concerning Greek life in this far-away period of history are the two epic poems, the "Iliad" and the "Odyssey," attributed to a poet named Homer.

Greek legend told that Paris, a son of Priam, king of Troy, had been one of many suitors among the Greek chieftains for the hand of a beautiful princess, Helen, who chose Menelaus, the brother of the head-chief, Agamemnon. All the suitors had agreed to abide by her decision and to aid her husband against disappointed suitors. Accordingly, when Paris refused to abide by this agreement and carried Helen off by force to his walled city of Troy, the other chiefs began a siege of that city. The poem of the "Iliad" begins when the siege had lasted ten years, and The "Iliad" relates the deeds of the great Greek warrior, Achilles, who kills Hector. Troy's hero. There is related elsewhere the stratagem employed by The Latin Ulysses to get into the the city,—the apparent retreat of the Greeks Epic of leaving behind them a gigantic wooden horse which the Trojans drew Aeneas into their city as a gift to their god. This horse contained within its

28 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

hollow interior the picked warriors of the Greeks, who, after night had fallen, came out of the horse, took the city by surprise, and destroyed it, together with its inhabitants.

The "Odyssey"

The "Odyssey" takes up the wonderful adventures of the hero Ulysses, or Odysseus on his way home from the Trojan War. After twenty years of wandering from one coast to another, he returns to Ithaca, where he drives off the swarm of suitors for the hand of his supposed widow.

Homer

To the Greeks and Romans Homer was a real personage, but whether he ever lived is doubtful. It is probable that both poems were composed in parts at different times and by different poets. From these poems we can reconstruct



METHOD OF PRIMITIVE TRANSPORTATION

Pictures of models found in a tomb in Egypt. These were made at least three thousand years ago.

the everyday life of both chieftain and peasant during the Homeric or heroic age. These people were mostly in the agricultural or pastoral stages of industry. All classes lived on farms and the cultivation of the soil was regarded as the most honorable of occupations. Even the great Ulysses followed the plough. Other pursuits were the keeping of cattle or swine, blacksmithing, shipbuilding, and commerce, while a few men adopted the profession of leech or physician, of the fortune-teller, or of the musician. There were three elements of government in Homeric society: the head-chief, or king, the council of subordinate chiefs, and an irregularly constituted assembly of the common people. The head-

chief was the war leader, judge of disputes between other citizens of the tribe, and high priest of the tribal gods; but he had no particular social pre-eminence over the other chiefs, while the common citizen, Thersites, dared to "pour forth his upbraidings even upon goodly Agamemnon." The council of chiefs was at all times able to control the headchief, and from the tenth to the fifth century B.C. they formed oligarchies or governments by the few, which drew more and greater restrictions around the powers of the king, at the same time refusing to the common people a right to share in governing.

Among the Homeric Greeks two religions existed. To Greek Rethe ancestor worship of the Myceneans the coming of the Acheans added a worship of the powers of nature, — the sun, moon, and sea, the thunderbolt and earthquake. Around these phenomena the poetic Greek built up mythical explanations of all matters beyond their reasoning powers. They personified the powers of nature. The supreme god, whom they called "The God" (Zeus), had the thunderbolt as his weapon to punish those who offended him. The sun was personified as Phoebus Apollo: the wind as Hermes. patron of commerce and messenger of the gods; fire as Hephaestus, patron of the forge and maker of the armor of the gods; the sea as Poseidon (Latin, Neptune). Among the female divinities were Hera, wife of Zeus and goddess of the sky; Artemis, moon goddess and patroness of the hunt; Athena, the goddess of wisdom; and Aphrodite (Latin, Venus), goddess of love. The Greeks believed in a shadowy future life in Hades which was ruled by Dis (Pluto), the god of the under-world. These gods were served by priests who performed the religious ceremonies, consisting chiefly of offering up burnt sacrifices of oxen or other animals. The early Greeks were deeply religious and believed that the gods usually acted justly toward mankind; yet some of the Greek stories picture them as having the same passions and failings as mortals. The priests never attained to as great power as a class as did the Hebrew priesthood.

14. The Period of Colonization. — About the year 1000

B.C. a new people spread over Greece, causing a great change

in the population of Hellas. At that time the Myceneans and Acheans had become united into a fairly uniform people

The Dorian Invasion

> called Ionians, to distinguish them from the newcomers or Dorians. Some of the Ionians were driven to seek shelter on the shores of Asia Minor, where they settled in cities in the district later called Ionia; but the stronghold of the Ionians was Attica, where developed the great city of Athens, the light of all Greece. This period of change is sometimes called the first period of colonization. The motives for colonization are three-fold: the desire to escape religious. political, or economic oppression; the love of adventure and of change; and the ambition for acquiring power, or love of leadership. The first movement of colonization was actuated chiefly by the first of these motives. The Dorians drove the Ionians from their ancestral fields forcing them to find others or starve. The second period of colonization

began about two hundred years after the Dorian invasion and continued for several hundred years. It was caused by

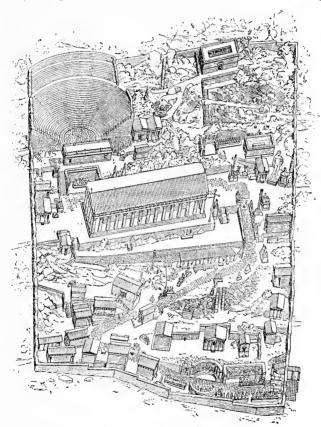
Periods and Motives for Colonization

The Oracle at Delphi

all three motives. The method of founding colonies is worth studying. The first thing done was to consult the oracle at Delphi, whether the expedition would be successful. There, in a temple erected in honor of Apollo, the Pythia or prophetess seated herself upon a tripod, or three-legged stool, near a crevice in the rocky floor of the temple, and under the influence of a gas which escaped from the crevice, uttered incoherent words which the priests pretended to interpret. They usually so worded the response that it might be taken to mean anything. Then, whatever happened, it appeared that the Pythia had prophesied truly. An example of the double meaning of some of the oracular responses is the famous answer to the question of the Athenians regarding the outcome of the impending battle of Salamis with the Persians: "Salamis, thou shalt cause sons of women to perish, either when the grain is sown or when it is harvested," a wonderfully ambiguous sort of answer.

If the oracle's response seemed favorable, a leader for the

expedition having been chosen, volunteer emigrants were The Method invited to embark with their families and movable posses- of Colonizasions, taking with them also sacred fire from the home altar,



THE ORACLE OF APOLLO RESTORED

The sacred shrine is near the centre. The amphitheatre is on the hillside above the temple.

which was carefully tended until they were able to place it on the new shrine. The new city begun, an altar was

GREECE AND HER COLONIES

erected therein, and with impressive religious rites the old fire was transferred to the new altar as a symbol of the binding tie between colony and mother city.1

During the period of colonization the chiefs became Greek wealthier than those of the Homeric age. Aided by their Tyrants wealth they limited the power of the head-chief, or king, and instituted oligarchies, thus giving rise to the name of the oligarchic or aristocratic period. In many of the Greek cities pretended champions of the people arose, who overthrew the aristocracies and ruled absolutely. These men were called tyrants. The Greeks meant by tyrant a man who possessed himself of the powers of government by force and without legal sanction. To the nobles and wealthier people such a ruler seemed very cruel, hence our conception of the word: but his rule was frequently advantageous for a city, because many public works were built from the tribute collected from the wealthier citizens, while the poorer class was not crushed under the burden of taxation. There was no age of tyrants. as some writers have supposed, because such rulers are common to nearly every period of Greek history.

15. Sparta. — About 900 B.C. the Dorians, who had settled Spartan Govin the central part of Laconia in the little city of Sparta. organized their government on the oligarchic plan. This reform was attributed to a semi-mythical leader named Lycurgus. The government consisted of two kings, who divided power with each other, a senate of thirty clanchiefs or elders, and an assembly of all Spartans capable of bearing arms. For two hundred years thereafter the senate exercised the sole political power. About 700 B.C. the government became slightly more democratic. Five officials, called ephors, elected annually by the assembly. were intrusted with important duties. Among these were

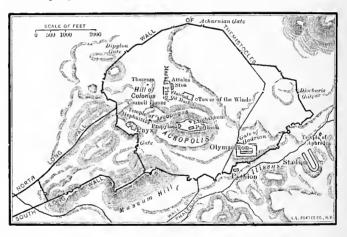
ernment

¹ This tie was strongly felt by most of the Greeks, although colonies were usually independent of the parent city. Athens founded the only colonies not possessing this independence. A few of her colonies were garrisoned and governed by Athenian settlers, who retained all rights of citizenship in Athens. This type of colony is called a cleruchy. The cleruchy and the true colony were the models for all other colonial efforts.

the following: to make war and peace, to act as judges over certain cases, to supervise the kings who became commanders in wartime only, to consult with the senate on matters of state, and to announce laws to the assembly for its approval.

Classes of Society

Sparta held in slavery the people whom she had despoiled These were called helots and outnumbered their They had no political rights. masters ten to one. government forced them to labor for the Spartan citizens in return for the military service which every Spartan citizen had to render. A third class of inhabitants of Laconia was composed of those who dwelt in the villages of Laconia. These people, called perioci, were subject to Sparta and were



PLAN OF ATHENS

obliged to serve in the Spartan army, but they enjoyed many rights and privileges.

Spartan Education

The government of Sparta was socialistic to the extent that every man's family and possessions were the property of the state. The ideal of Spartan education was to render the citizen useful to the state; therefore the boys were trained for military service and the girls were trained in gymnastics so that they might be strong and well and able

to rear healthy children for the state. Everything centred around the military traditions of the city. The boy was removed from the home of his parents at an early age and brought up by the state in company with other lads of his own age. The Spartans scorned the culture and refinement of other Greek cities. Except for a slight training in reading and martial music, their education was purely physical. Is it strange that Sparta for hundreds of years sent forth the finest armies in all Greece, or that no great name in art. philosophy, or literature is found in her history?

16. Early Athens. - With Athens, on the other hand, the Origin of history of Greece is chiefly concerned. Some authorities attempt to account for the progressive spirit shown by the Athenians by showing that Athens was made up of so many diverse elements of population. The Athenians wrote more important books, built finer temples, erected more beautiful statues, and developed a freer government than did other Greek cities.1

Early in the oligarchic period the "well-born" (nobles) took from the king all his powers except those of priest and gave them to new officials chosen from their own number who were called archons. Not satisfied with having all the powers of government in their own hands,2 the "well-born" Government reduced the common people of Athens to slavery. There were no written laws, so the poor people were obliged to endure every imposition put upon them by their masters. They had to labor on the estates of the rich for a miscrable pittance that was often insufficient to pay their living expenses. If they got in debt they and their families were seized by the wealthy landlord and sold into slavery. At last the common people rebelled against such injustice and

¹ Like all primitive peoples, the Athenians were unable to trace their early history. So they invented various myths to explain how the city was built. Two of their great heroes were Codrus, a king, of whom it was told that he sacrificed his life to save the city and Theseus, who killed the monster Minotaur in the Cretan labyrinth.

² The king, called king-archon, was elected for a short term from the "well-born." The other archons were "the archon," who assumed most of the old regal powers, and the polemarch, or war-archon.

by the "Wellborn"

Laws of Draco demanded that the laws of Athens be written down, so that the judges (who were always members of the well-born class) might not make decisions to suit their own interests. In 621 B.C. the archon Draco was instructed to make a code of laws. After these laws had been carved on wooden tablets and set up in the public square the people saw how inhuman and cruel many of them were.

Solon's Reforms A few years later another man was appointed archon to reform economic and political evils. This man, Solon, brought forward ² a law, called the "Removal of Burdens," which freed the Athenians from slavery and debt (593 B.C.). He also gave to the common people a greater ³ control over the government and deprived the nobles of most of their political power. In order to insure popular interest in government, a law was made by which any citizen, who refused to serve his city in war or who would not assume political responsibilities such as assembly or jury duty, might be deprived of his citizenship. Solon also insisted on the universal education of the Athenian youth. Solon was one of the most remarkable men of ancient times. Before he had shown his statesmanship he had conducted a brilliant military campaign for Athens. All his life he was a successful

¹ An uprising against the government led by Cylon, who wished to make himself tyrant of Athens as his father-in-law was at Megara, in the course of which the citadel itself was seized by the rebels, was finally put down by the well-born. But the popular discontent against the injustice done the poor finally forced the rulers to consent to reform.

² The "Removal of Burdens" provided: (1) All Athenians were freed from slavery; (2) Mortgages held by the rich on property of the poor were cancelled, or, as some think, the boundary marks on mortgaged property were removed, thus preventing the holder of the mortgage from locating the land so pledged; (3) The amount of land that could be held by one person was limited; (4) Public and private debts were cancelled; (5) The coins were made smaller, thus benefiting the debtor class.

³ Had Solon not reformed the government of Athens, the economic reforms mentioned above would speedily have been set at naught by the rich. He gave to the popular assembly the right to elect the archons and to try them at the expiration of their term of office if any charges were brought against them. He took away the right of preparing laws from the archons and gave it to a newly constituted body, the senate.

business man; but he also was one of the best poets of his time.

Athens was on the high road to democracy when an un- Tyranny at fortunate strife arose between factions and temporarily so weakened the state that a distant relative of Solon took advantage of its weakness and made himself tyrant. man, Pisistratus, was a man of the highest character and ideals, who sought to preserve the forms of the constitution introduced by Solon, while playing the rôle of a political boss. After numerous conspiracies directed against his life had been thwarted, he became more of a "tyrant," surrounding himself with a bodyguard and giving less attention to keeping up Solon's reforms. During his long rule Athens was made a city beautiful, yet he taxed the people heavily to build temples and roads. The Athenians rejoiced when Clisthenes, another Solon, drove out Hippias, the son and successor of Pisistratus, and restored and made improvements upon Solon's democratic government.

Clisthenes rearranged the wards of Athens, so as to destroy Reforms of the old tribal distinctions that had offered Pisistratus an opportunity to overthrow the democracy. He also threw citizenship open to all residents in Athens, and invented a device by which dangerous agitators or would-be tyrants could be banished from the city.1 The assembly was given greater control over the government.

Clisthenes

17. The Rise of Persia. — During the lifetime of Draco Beginnings of the mountain pastoral tribes living east of Babylonia were the Persian organized into a kingdom by one of their chieftains, a Mede, who also gained an overlordship over a kindred people called the Persians, who lived on the eastern shores of the Persian Gulf. When Babylon revolted from Assyria, the Medes aided in the destruction of their common foe and divided with Babylon the former Assyrian dominions. Fifty years later, as Pisistratus was entrenching himself in power in Athens, Cyrus, a Persian prince, overthrew successively

Empire

¹ Ostracism, as this plan was called, consisted of an election or ballot to determine the name of the most unpopular citizen of Athens. The man receiving the votes of six thousand citizens was banished (ostracized). Media and Babylon with all their tributary states in Asia Minor. His son added Egypt to the Persian empire and extorted a heavy tribute from the Ionian cities. Darius was the next ruler of Persia who left his mark on the empire. His work was the construction of the government rather than conquest. He divided the empire into provinces, called satrapies, in which the civil matters were controlled by a governor, called satrap, while the army was under the command of a general appointed by Darius.¹

The Persian

The Persians were a half barbarous people at the time of Darius. They had adopted the architecture and literature of the Babylonians. Unlike the nations by whom they were surrounded, the Persians did not worship a multitude of gods. Zoroaster, a Persian prophet of the sixth century B.C.,² taught that there were two supernatural forces continually at war. These they called Ahura-mazda, the beneficent god of light, symbolized by the sun, and Ahriman, the spirit of evil and darkness. They believed that Ahura-mazda would eventually conquer Ahriman and bind him fast for eternity. These beliefs, together with prayers and hymns, make up the Avesta, the Bible of the Persians. The early Persians believed in truth-telling and in honesty of life and were morally superior to other ancient peoples.³

Other Eastern Religions The sixth century before Christ was a period of religion building and of moral reform. Thousands of years before, a branch of the Turanian people, which had developed the Sumerian civilization in the Tigris-

¹ In addition to this plan of dividing authority, an officer, called "The King's Ear," resided in each satrapy and gave frequent reports in writing to Darius. An inspector, called "The King's Eye," supervised the administrations of all the satraps. By these officials and by a network of state roads, constructed from one end of his empire to the other, Darius was enabled to bind together an empire of vast extent while he planned to increase its size by European conquests.

² Some authorities place Zoroaster as far back in history as 1000 B.C.

Others question whether such a man ever lived.

³ The Magians, or priests of the Persian religion, destroyed the former high ethical standards of the Persians by insisting on the importance of form and ceremony in worship and by neglecting wholesome living.

Euphrates region, had wandered across the plains of Turkestan and China to the shores of the Yellow Sea. There they developed a high civilization for thousands of years and gained a wonderful knowledge of mechanical arts. Their teacher, Confucius, preached a new standard of Confucianism morality in these words: "Do not to others what you would not have others do to you."

A people akin in language to the Greeks had settled in very early times The Caste along the Indus and Ganges rivers, where they developed a strong caste System system and a complicated religion. Society organized on a caste system is one in which strong distinctions are made between the various classes of society. In India the castes are the Brahmins or priests, the warriors. the peasant freemen, the slaves. Beneath all these were the Pariahs or outcastes.

The earliest Hindoo religion was probably monotheistic. There was Hindoo Reone supreme god, called Brahma. Later he was regarded as three-fold; ligion the creator, Brahma; the saviour, Vishnu; and the destroyer, Siva. The priests corrupted this religion by the introduction of hundreds of lesser gods and by the magnifying of religious rites over religious ideals. In the sixth century a princely youth, named Gautama, gave up his riches and devoted his life to the service of mankind. He taught his followers to lead noble lives, overcoming evil with good. His disciples called him Buddha (the enlightened one). The great world religion which developed from his teachings spread over India and China. It has been choked out in India by a revival of Brahminism in its worst forms.

18. Wars between the Greeks and Persians. - The The Ionian Ionian Greeks rebelled against the tyrants whom the Persian Revolt ruler had permitted to rule them and, with the aid of the Athenians, captured Sardis, the most important city in the western possessions of Persia. Their triumph was shortlived, for Darius threw a strong army into Ionia and, after a short struggle, forced the cities to accept again the Persian yoke. He then turned his attention to Hellas, partly to punish the Athenians and partly to carry out his designs for empire in Europe. His first expedition against Greece was only halfway successful, and the loss of his fleet in a storm postponed for two years the attack on Athens.

In 400 B.C. a large Persian army under the leadership of the Marathon generals Datis and Artaphernes landed on the island of 490 B.C. Eubea, destroyed the city of Eretria, an ally of Athens, and then crossed to the shore of Attica. They were met on the plains of Marathon by a small army of ten thousand Athe-

Its Importance

nians and one thousand Plateans only1; yet, owing to the superior generalship of Miltiades, who is rated as one of the greatest of Greek military heroes, the Persians were totally defeated. The battle of Marathon encouraged the Greeks to withstand all attempts upon their liberty by foreign powers. It also prepared the way for Athenian leadership of Greece. It was the first great conflict between East and West to prevent Europe from being orientalized. No further attempt to conquer Greece was made by Darius for ten years, owing to an Egyptian revolt from Persian rule. His energies were fully occupied in suppressing this revolt.

Party Politics at Athens

By this time the democratic party had become the only party in Athens, much as the Federalist was the only party in Washington's administration, yet on the point of dividing again. Those who were satisfied with the reforms already won and opposed further progress, who may be called conservatives, were led by Aristides, one of the greatest Greek statesmen. Themistocles was the leader of the radical party which favored further reform. He advocated that Athens should build a large navy so that she might be prepared if Persia attacked again. Aristides, pointing to the success of the Athenians on land at Marathon and elsewhere, seriously objected to the waste of money involved in the building of a fleet. Themistocles believed that the matter was one of life or death to Athens and so brought about a vote to determine popular sentiment. Aristides was ostracized and Themistocles was encouraged to carry out his policy.

The Invasion of Xerxes 480-470 B.C.

Xerxes, the son of Darius, was a vain man of small talents and mentally unbalanced. With many boasts and great display, he led an army of nearly a million fighting men and a fleet of twelve hundred ships against Greece.² As his

¹ The Athenians had sent a famous runner to Sparta with a request for aid, but the Spartans superstitiously refused to allow their army to set forth before the full-moon. In the meantime the battle had been fought.

² When the Greeks learned that the Persians were advancing they

army came through the mountain passes of Thessaly, it was met at Thermopylae by a gallant Spartan band under Leonidas. The Spartans died for their country and established a fame that will last as long as history itself. The Athenian fleet, on the same day, delayed the Persian advance in the straits of Artemisium, and later anchored in the harbor of Salamis, west of Athens, to discuss further plans for defence. Here they were attacked by the Persian fleet.1 and, to the consternation of Xerxes, who witnessed the battle, the Persians were as decisively beaten on the sea as they had been on the land at Marathon.

The enormous Persian army was defeated soon after this at Platea by the combined forces of Sparta and Athens, and on the same day the Athenian fleet won another signal victory over the Persians at Mycale. The former battle closed the Persian war in Hellas: the second began the struggle to free the Ionian Greeks. Greatly encouraged Significance at their success in resisting the most powerful empire of of the Outtheir day, the Greeks pressed on to the highest development wars of the intellectual and artistic superiority for which they are famous in history. Had the Persians conquered the Greeks, it is doubtful whether the great achievements in art, drama,

come of the

held a congress of the Greek cities at Corinth, where the question of defence was discussed. The people of the Peloponnesus selfishly advocated that all Greeks should retire within that peninsula and fortify the Isthmus of Corinth, connecting it with central Greece. This would have left Athens defenceless, and therefore the Athenians would have none of the plan. Another plan, to attempt to guard the mountain passes leading from Thessalv to central Greece, was adopted.

When Themistocles discovered that the Spartans were about to desert the cause of the Greeks he determined to force a battle with the Persians in order to hold them. Accordingly he sent a false message to Xerxes in which he agreed to betray the Greeks to him and advised him to block up the harbor of Salamis with his fleet. The stratagem succeeded. The fleet of Xerxes blocked up the narrow mouth of the harbor and the Greeks were caught like rats in a trap, yet they could still fight. In order to win, Xerxes had to capture the Greek fleet. Accordingly he ordered his ships to enter the harbor. This was exactly what Themistocles had hoped he would do. As the Persian ships came through the narrow channel in single file, the Greek ships attacked and sunk them. Aristides returned to aid the Athenians in this battle.

architecture, and philosophy would have been brought forth during the next period of Greek history.

19. Summary of Early Greek History. — The Greek race was made up of at least two stocks, the Myceneans and the Achean-Dorians. (For the Dorians were probably a later wave of invasion from the same stock.) They lived in a land peculiarly adapted to commerce. This commerce led to colonization and to the growth of a wonderful, many-sided civilization. The Spartans stood for military efficiency and for the subordination of the individual to the state: the Athenians believed in intellectual and commercial supremacy and in the utmost development of the principle of personal liberty possible to an age when slavery was an economic necessity. Clisthenes carried on still further the great work of turning aristocratic Athens into a democracy that had been commenced by Solon and checked by the tyranny. During this period the Spartan army was approaching perfection and the Ionian cities were developing intellectual culture and commercial relations, which attracted the attention of the Persians. The Persians developed from a pastoral people to a strong empire under Cyrus and Darius. After having mastered the Orient, they attempted to conquer the Greek city-states. The Greeks won because they were fighting for their homes and on familiar ground; because they were better trained and better officered; finally because their navy was made up of Athenian ships and not of unwilling mercenaries. The Greek victory rescued Europe from the blighting effects of the oriental civilization.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Show on an outline map of Greece the principal physical features of Greece; locate the important cities and states mentioned in the chapter; indicate where battles were fought. Relate the stories of Jason and the Golden Fleece, Theseus and the Minotaur, the Labors of Hercules, Cadmus, the siege of Troy, the wanderings of Ulysses. Find out how the Greeks reckoned time. Explain the nature and influence of the Greek Olympic games. Compare the Mycenean and Achean civilizations and peoples. Mention some of the important Greek colonies,

locate them, and tell by whom founded. Relate the story of typical tyrants, such as Pisistratus, Pittacus, Periander, and Clisthenes of Sicyon. (Good accounts may be found in Bury, pp. 146–159.) How did Sparta treat deformed children? What was the effect of Spartan education on character? Of Athenian? Read the description of a Persian highroad in Wheeler's *Life of Alexander the Great*, pp. 196–197. Read some longer account of the lives of Themistocles, Miltiades, and Aristides. Compare their political views and services to the city of Athens. Why are the accounts of the battles so brief in this book? Compare the part played by Athens in this war with Sparta's.

Reference Readings

Seignobos, Ancient Civilization. Topics: Greece and the Greeks; Colonization, Chapter IX; Greek Myths and Religion, Chapter X; Sparta, Chapter XI; Athens, Chapter XII; Rise of Persia, Chapter VI; Persian Wars, Chapter XIII.

Fling, Source-Book of Greek History: D. C. Heath and Co. (Selections from the original sources of Greek history, invaluable for class reference reading.) Primitive Greek Society, pp. 1–28; Colonization, pp. 29–40; Unification of Greek Life, pp. 41–53; Rise of Sparta and Athens, pp. 54–97; Persian Wars, pp. 98–99, 105–141.

Bury, History of Greece: Macmillan. (About the best single volume Greek history.) Material for this chapter may be found in the first 321 pages.

Bryant, Translation of the Odyssey, Books VI, VII. Botsford, A History of the Ancient World, pp. 81–182. Andrews, Alexander the Great, Persia, pp. 187–207.

Shepherd, Historical Atlas: Beginnings of Historic Greece, p. 8; Reference maps of Ancient Greece, pp. 10, 11, 14, 15; Greek Colonies, p. 12; Persian Wars, pp. 13, 16.

CHAPTER III

THE ATHENIAN AND MACEDONIAN EMPIRES

The Delian League 20. Origin of Athenian Empire. — The Spartans were jealous of the growing power of Athens and showed actual hostility to her.¹ Aristides proposed in 466 B.C.² a confederacy of the states friendly to Athens. Its object should be to free the Egean and its coasts from Persian rule and, at the same time, balance the land league which Sparta had built up in the Peloponnesus. Athens acted as president of this league, somewhat as the kingdom of Prussia rules the German empire through its king, who is also emperor. The treasury was at first kept on the island of Delos, hence the name Delian League. Each member of the league agreed to furnish a certain number of ships and sufficient money annually to carry on its wars.

Growth of the League During the following ten years the league won many victories, until nearly all the islands of the Egean Sea and the most important cities of Thrace and Ionia were freed from Persia. With the disappearance of Persian power the Ionians were less anxious to have a large fleet; hence, instead of contributing ships, they paid equivalent sums of money into the common treasury. This money was intended as insurance against future attacks, but Athens used it to

¹ Sparta attempted to prevent Athens from rebuilding her fortifications which had been destroyed by the Persians. Themistocles deceived the Spartans and misrepresented what Athens was trying to do. He went to Sparta and kept the Spartan leaders occupied with daily conferences, while the Athenians completed the fortifications of the city. They were forced to use the ruined walls of temples and public buildings for quarries.

² Aristides was at this time in command of the allied Greek fleet which was engaged in freeing the Greek cities of Ionia from Persian rule.

build new ships, gradually replacing a fleet of allies with her own vessels, until the fleet was entirely Athenian built and manned. Now Athens was in a position to act the tyrant over the rest of the league. When Naxos refused to pay its assessment on the ground that it was no longer needed, the Athenian fleet compelled payment. Rebellious cities were treated as conquered provinces by Athens. She took away their citizenship and levied excessive tribute. With these acts of tyranny Athens no longer called together the congress of the league and removed the treasury of the allies from Delos to Athens, where its funds were used for beautifying and strengthening the city. The Delian League had been converted into an Athenian empire.

21. Periclean Athens. — After the death of Aristides Character of new leaders came to the front, among them Pericles, the greatest statesman of Athens. An aristocrat by birth, he fought for the common people, as did Julius Caesar at Rome. He was a cold, haughty, reserved man of fine physique and noble face, but he possessed the power of winning the worship of his adherents. He held no important public office except His Influence that of general, yet he was practically emperor of the Athenian empire for over a score of years. He had great influence over the officers of government. If he lived today he would be a political leader of national strength. His aim was His Aim to make Athens the most prominent politically, the most popular and best governed, the most artistic and the most beautiful of all the cities of Greece.

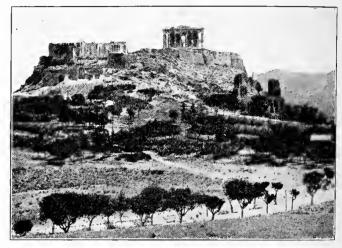
After he became the leader of his party he attempted to His Policy build up a land empire for Athens, and within ten years had added most of central Greece, Thessaly, and Euboea to the Athenian control. He completed the fortification of Athens 1 by building long walls from the city to and enclosing the Pireus, the port of Athens. This effectually prevented Sparta from besieging the city on all sides with a land force

Pericles

¹ Themistocles, although a more brilliant general than Aristides, had been banished from Athens some years previous to the death of Aristides because of a serious mistake that he made in carrying on the affairs of the city.

46 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

and cutting off her supplies. He gave aid to Egypt in her war for independence from Persia. Just at this time calamity after calamity overtook the Athenian empire. The great Athenian fleet and army in Egypt was overwhelmed, Euboea and Beotia revolted, and Sparta invaded Attica. Pericles was glad to be able to make peace with the Péloponnesians, which is known as the Thirty Years' Truce. (It lasted only fifteen years.)



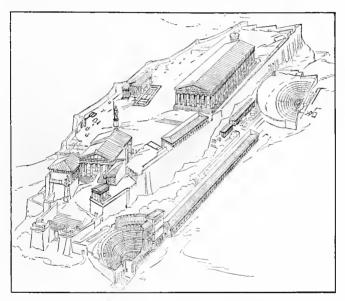
THE ACROPOLIS TODAY

The art of the Ancients, neglected and in ruins.

Athenian Democracy Although Athens had lost some of her prestige abroad, she was nevertheless at the height of her power at home. This period is called her golden age. Athens had become a democracy, of which the following are the principal features:

(1) The council and officers who represented the nobles had no real share in the government. (2) The elective office of general had increased in importance until it resembled that of our president. He had the power to propose laws to the assembly and, after the laws had been made, he had the

right to see to their execution. (3) The assembly, now composed of all free-born Athenians who cared to attend, had the power not only to make all important laws, but together with the general also the right to supervise their execution. (4) The courts became truly representative of the people and acted with the assembly on all matters.



THE ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS - RESTORED

This fortified hill, which contained some of the most splendid productions of Greek art, was approached by the steps shown at the lower left corner of the picture. The Parthenon is seen near the top of the restoration. The theatre of Dionysus is at the right of the Parthenon.

The dicasteries, or popular courts, were chosen annually by lot. Each court was made up of five hundred jurors and had jurisdiction over disputes between members of the league, charges brought against public officials, and civil suits. After the evidence had been presented by the popular orators on each side, the majority vote of the five hundred dicasts or jurors would be the final judgment. With such a large number of men constantly in the civil service, and with the precedent established

of only one term in office, it will be readily seen that public life was required of nearly every free-born Athenian. The consequence was that the Athenians developed the sense of democracy to a higher degree than other peoples of ancient times.

Classes of Society The population of Athens during the age of Pericles was probably 250,000. About 35,000 were accorded full citizenship.¹ There were at least 10,000 foreigners, called metics, residing and engaging in business in Athens at this time. These were sometimes admitted to citizenship by a secret ballot of the assembly in return for great public service. (The general attitude toward the metics was exclusive.)

Slavery

Every family in Athens had at least one slave, and there were probably over 150,000 slaves at work in the shops. mines, or on the country estates of the Athenians in Attica. The employment of slaves in the trades was universally recognized as legitimate, honorable, and profitable. Athenian usually treated his slaves with consideration and kindness, the law prohibiting cruelty except when necessary to compel a slave to confess a crime. The slaves felt the same loyalty to their masters as was shown by many Southern negroes before the Civil War; as a result no slave rebellion took place until centuries after the time we are studying. Although Athens was the leader of the ancient world in free thought, she failed to reach a very high point in ideas of universal brotherhood because she fostered the institution of slavery, adopted a narrow policy toward foreigners, and excluded women from all political rights.

Architecture and Sculpture 22. Artistic and Intellectual Supremacy of Athens.—Great as Athens was in political growth, she was far greater as the producer of the greatest artistic and intellectual works of antiquity and perhaps of all time. Phidias created in the Parthenon a type of perfect architectural design. This can never be duplicated. He built on a slight curve all those lines which our architects must now make absolutely square

¹ Full citizenship was given only to one whose father's and mother's families were each citizen stock. Serious crimes against the state, such as bribery, embezzlement of public money, perjury, or cruelty to parents, were punishable by loss of citizenship.

and straight. As curved lines are more beautiful than Reasons for straight lines, so his temple will always be the most beautiful building in the world. His pupil, Praxiteles, his superior in sculpture though not in architecture, has given the world the beautiful statue of Hermes. Greek statues are masterpieces not because they accurately reproduce the lines of the human body, but because viewed from no matter what side, the proportion of the body seems perfectly foreshortened

Greek Artistic Supremacy



THE RESTORED PARTHENON From a model in the Metropolitan Museum, New York.

to the eye. This art of proportion is what distinguishes their work from even the most beautiful of modern works.

At no other period of the world's history were there so Greek Literamany artists of rank and writers and thinkers within the walls of a single city. The writing of this period was chiefly of two kinds, dramatic poetry and history. The Greeks attached great importance to the drama because they regarded it in the nature of a religious service in honor of the gods. The serious drama which they called tragedy, grew out of the old choral ode, a hymn sung by a group of wor-

Thespis The Drama shippers. Thespis, an Athenian poet, wrote a hymn in which one actor or singer carried out the main story while the worshippers joined in the chorus. This was the germ of Greek tragedy. The tragedy more closely resembled grand opera than drama. The lines of the acts were declaimed or



AN INTERIOR VIEW OF THE RESTORED PARTHENON

Aeschylus

sung, and the chorus was accompanied with the music of flutes. Aeschylus, a contemporary of Aristides, improved on the drama of Thespis by adding a second actor and made the two soloists do the principal work of the drama, leaving to the chorus the task of emphasizing their feelings. He

had been a spectator of the battles of the Persian War and his patriotism made him choose lofty themes connected with the history or religion of his country. His masterpiece is "Prometheus Bound," the story of a human benefactor. who was chained to a rock and tortured by an eagle because of his kindness to man. In his agony Prometheus utters great truths concerning the nature of life and death.

The Athenians held contests at which contestants for Sophocles dramatic fame presented their work. Aeschylus was defcated in one of these contests by a young man of twentyeight named Sophocles. The new dramatist added a third actor to the principals and made the chorus still less prominent. He wrote over a hundred tragedies, of which seven only have been preserved. Among these is "Electra," the story of how Electra avenges the death of her father, Agamemnon. who was murdered after his return from the Trojan War.

Euripides, the third great tragedian, was also sombre in Euripides tone, and while his dramas are more polished than those of his predecessors, it is with relief that we turn to the sole humorist among the early great dramatists. Aristophanes was the first great writer of comic drama. From his satirical stories of everyday life in Athens during the period immediately following the death of Pericles, we get good pictures of the important men of the day. In his "Clouds" he ridicules the work of certain Athenian teachers, among them Socrates. (See p. 55.)

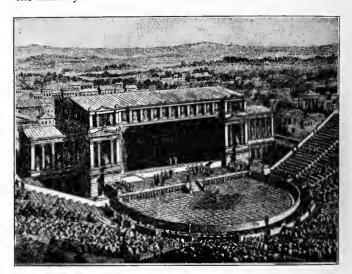
These dramas were presented in the only place for such The Greek representations in Athens, the Dionysian theatre. This Theatre edifice was built on the southeastern slope of the Acropolis, the tiers of seats rising on the hillside; its stage, a separate structure facing the Acropolis. Between the stage background, or scena (scene), with its narrow platform on which the principal actors chanted their parts, and the seats of the audience was a broad space called the orchestra, which was used by the chorus for its symbolic dances. This theatre seated over thirty thousand spectators and was open to the beautiful blue sky of Greece. A small admission fee was collected from those who attended, the city paying for

those who were too poor. The dramas presented religious and patriotic teachings, and hence served in the cause of

public education.

History

The historical writing of this period and of the one immediately before and after was mainly the chronicle of war. Xenophon, a pupil of Socrates, accompanied a war expedition into Persia and in the "Anabasis" 1 gives us a clear idea of the military customs of the time.



RESTORATION OF THE THEATRE OF DIONYSUS

A Sound Mind in a Sound Body 23. Athenian Education and Educators. — The Greeks included in education physical, mental, and moral training. The Athenian boy studied three subjects: gymnastics, music, and grammar. As these terms mean so much more than they do at present, they must be carefully explained. Physical training was practised in the palestra or wrestling grounds, under the direct supervision of a director who taught it is

¹ This book is the basis of elementary study of Greek, because of the 18 simplicity and interest of its style and contents. (See p. 25.)

the boys wrestling, boxing, running, the broad jump, and casting the discus and spear.¹ All citizens' sons were also trained in the use of weapons.

Music included learning to sing to the accompaniment of the lyre or small harp, and to play on the lyre and the flute, a clarinet with two pipes. The student was taught the biography of the poet who wrote the song and the motives involved in writing the poem; hence he received considerable literary training.



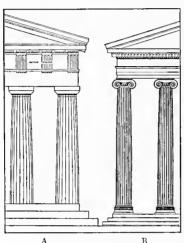
Ruins of the Theatre of Dionysus (As it is today.)

Grammar was studied at regular schools and consisted of reading and writing. They wrote with a sharp-pointed iron stylus, or pencil, on wooden tablets covered with wax, usually copying a model set by the instructor. Others wrote with a reed pen on a rough paper made from the

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ Track at hletics was the popular sport among the Athenians. At the national religious games the boys of Athens frequently carried off the crown of victory from older men.

Egyptian papyrus plant.¹ The text-books of these schools were the "Iliad" and "Odyssey," which were committed to memory in whole or in part.

Mathematics was not studied by the average Athenian, For counting they required an abacus or counting board.²



The Sophists

- A. Doric Columns
- B. IONIC COLUMNS

The Greek boy had no training in science and a very meagre study of history, and therefore was probably extremely happy in his games of ball, marbles, jackstones, or kite-flying. The training of Athenian girls was along domestic lines. They learned to read and write, but, aside from these studies, they were taught only sewing, weaving, and embroidery.

Two years after the death of Pericles there came to Athens from Sicily a gifted orator, named Gorgias, whose

eloquent speeches frequently brought the Athenians together into the market-place. "For all the Athenians and strangers which were there spent their time in nothing else but either to tell or hear some new thing." The science of public speaking (rhetoric) was thereafter a favorite study at Athens, and the teachers of oratory were called Sophists. The fault of sophistry was that it tended to exalt the words used above the thought thereby expressed and to make of the intellectual grandeur of Athens a showy but shallow "smartness."

¹ They called this a book (biblos); hence the word "Bible," meaning The Book.

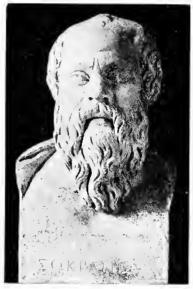
² The abacus may be seen in use in Chinese laundries, or in primary school work.

³ Acts xvii. 21.

Aristophanes ridiculed Socrates as one of these Sophists. Socrates In reality he was far greater than they. A poor sculptor by profession, he preferred to spend most of his time loitering in the market-place in order to get into arguments with the passers-by. He was short and poorly clad, barefooted and

homely, but he was able to refute the opinions of his opponents by skillful argument. His method of questioning his opponents is famed as the Socratic method of teaching.1 His motto was "Know thyself." He had many enemies, who finally had him thrown into prison on two charges: that of treason and of impiety. After an unfair trial, in which he argued that he deserved a reward. not punishment, he was condemned to die by drinking poison.

His greatest pupil was the philosopher Plato, who taught that the



BUST OF SOCRATES

soul is immortal and that man's mind is superior to his body. Yet few of the Greeks had any conception of a future life except as a shadowy continuation of this present existence.

24. The Peloponnesian War and the Decline of the Greek City-States. — The truce made by Pericles with the Peloponnesian League had lasted only fifteen years when the great The Comwar between the rival leagues began again in earnest. The batants

1 Socrates first apparently accepted his adversary's opinion, then by skillful argument he would lead him to contradict himself, and thus expose him to the laughter of the bystanders.

reasons for hostility were as follows: the Athenian League was composed chiefly of democratic and commercial cities: the Spartan of aristocratic and landholding states. Some of the states, of the latter league, such as Corinth, wished to gain some of Athens' commercial supremacy. The causes then were two-fold: the difference between the character of the two leagues and strife for commercial leadership. Athens had the command of the sea, but her army was inadequate to a long campaign on land. Sparta had the better army, but was unable to keep this army long in the field because she lacked a navy to support its operations and to furnish it with supplies. Pericles clearly recognized these conditions and advocated a policy of delay. The Athenians retired within their fortifications and relied upon their fleet to feed them by bringing in grain from far-away shores of the Black Sea. In the meantime the Spartan army ravaged the fields of Attica, but did no serious damage to Athens, whereas Athenian war vessels retaliated on the shores of Laconia.

End of Athenian Supremacy This plan proved successful until the unwonted crowding of the city and the lack of proper sanitary precautions brought pestilence upon Athens, from which over a fourth of the population of Athens died, among them the great leader and counsellor. His successors, men of unquestioned heroism, but lacking his tact and generalship, led Athens from

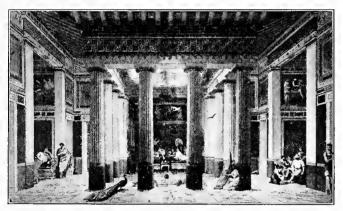
¹ An Athenian historian has written the following funeral oration, which he puts into the mouth of Pericles. "To sum up: I say that Athens is the school of Hellas, I would have you day by day fix your eyes upon the greatness of Athens, until you become filled with the love of her; and when you are impressed by the spectacle of her glory, reflect that this empire has been acquired by men who knew their duty and had their courage to do it, and who in the hour of conflict had the fear of dishonor always present in them.

"For the whole earth is a sepulchre of famous men; not only are they commemorated by columns and inscriptions in their own country, but in foreign lands there dwells an unwritten memorial of them, graven not on stone, but in the hearts of men. Make them your examples, and esteeming courage to be freedom and freedom to be happiness, do not weigh too nicely the perils of war." This is surely the only funeral oration in any language worthy to be classed with the Gettysburg Address.

defeat to defeat.1 At last Persian gold aided the Spartans to destroy the power of the most enlightened of the Greek Sparta destroyed the fortifications of Athens and . declared Hellas free.

The destruction of Athenian power left Sparta in the most Decline of the prominent position in Greece.2 She ruled the members of Greek City-

States



A GREEK BANQUET HALL

the former Athenian League with a rod of iron, placing over each a committee of ten men, called decarchy, which was supported by a military garrison. Her supremacy reacted disastrously upon Sparta, for the city of Thebes, under the leadership of a brilliant statesman-general, Epaminondas,

¹ The culminating tragedy was an ill-advised expedition against Syracuse, a Sicilian state allied to the Peloponnesian League. Here a fleet of over two hundred ships and an army of forty thousand men, the picked soldiers of Athens, were destroyed. After this defeat Athens struggled along for nine years before she was forced to surrender.

² It was during this period that Cyrus (a brother of the then reigning Persian king, Artaxerxes) made an expedition from Ionia to Babylon with Greek mercenaries, to take the throne from his brother. Cyrus was killed in a battle near Babylon and Xenophon led the Greeks back across the mountains to the Black Sea. This famous expedition is described in the "Anabasis."

humbled her armies in the field and crushed her political hopes. This general was successful because he improved upon the military tactics of his day. The Spartans had invented the phalanx, a fighting unit made up of compact bodies of men who marched and fought as one. Epaminon-das improved upon this plan by making his line of battle deeper at one particular point and by concentrating his attack upon the enemy at that point. The other detachments of his army fell upon the flanks of the enemy struggling with his deep phalanx and put them to rout. Epaminondas was killed in battle after ten years of success, and no Greek was able to carry on his work of leadership.

The city-states had failed. Each of the leading states had been given an opportunity to weld all Hellas together under its leadership, but each in turn failed, chiefly because its motives were selfish. Each strove for wealth and power at the expense of the other states. It was left for an outsider

to unite the Greek world into a great empire.

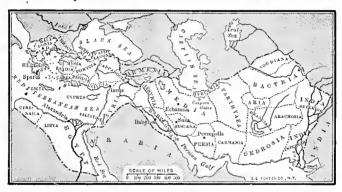
The Rise of Macedon

25. Macedon and Alexander the Great. - Before the time of the Theban supremacy the people of Macedon were "without fixed habitations, clad in animal skins, pasturing sheep among the mountains." They were somewhat different from the other Greeks in racial characteristics. Philip II, who had spent his boyhood at Thebes, proved a great ruler and conqueror. He introduced the Theban phalanx and improved upon it, making his soldiers able to perform military manœuvres similar to those of modern battalions. While getting his army trained, he deceived the Greek cities as to his real motive. Having amassed a fortune, secured a seaport for Macedon, and perfected his plans against Greece, he threw his army across the border and speedily crushed all resistance. The Greek states met at Corinth and acknowledged Philip as the ruler or leader of all Hellas. He then planned to invade Persia, but died at the moment of entering upon the expedition, leaving his well-trained army, his treasury, and the prestige of his name to his youthful son, Alexander.

Alexander was twenty years old when his father died,

and a few malcontents thought that they could take advan- The Life of tage of his youth. But in less than two years he had so thoroughly chastised these rebels that he felt secure in taking up the task his father had planned. Entering Asia Minor (334 B.C.) with a small but fully equipped army, he fought three world-famous battles with the Persian forces at Granicus. Issus, and Arbela. After capturing the ancient city of Tyre, he visited Egypt and founded at the mouth of the Nile the famous city named after himself, Alexandria, which became one of the chief intellectual cities of the world. Within five years he was master of the East as far as the

Alexander the



EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT -- AT ITS WIDEST EXTENT

Indus, had deposed the king of Persia, and had welded the Hellenic and Persian world together into one vast empire, the greatest then known to history. He returned to Babylon, where he died suddenly of a fever brought on by excesses in eating and drinking, or, as some believe, from poison.

The importance of his career and conquests is incalculable. His Character He was a man of great breadth of mind, fond of science and history. He was trained by the great philosopher Aristotle, the pupil of Plato. His passions were not always under the best control. He inherited from his mother a violent temper that caused him to commit many acts of folly and violence; and, while under the influence of wine, he murdered his

and Place in History

friend Clitus. His generalship was of the highest order. Only once did he suffer a defeat, and that was at the hands of the Hindoo princes, when, with a tired and discontented army, he tried to conquer the lands beyond the Indus. His statesmanship is shown by his policy of uniting the Greeks and Persians in marriage, and he set an example by marrying the daughter of the deposed Persian ruler. His love of learning is shown in his regard for his tutor, Aristotle, the most famous scientist of ancient times. Alexander was the most attractive in person of all the world's great conquerors. Of magnificent proportions, with handsome face and eyes, he is an ideal of the man of force.

The chief importance of Alexander's career lies in the spread of the Greek civilization over the entire eastern Mediterranean region. The entire civilized world at that time became Greek in language, learning, and customs, all except the struggling republic of the West, Rome. In building cities to be the centres of Greek thought throughout his dominions, he greatly broadened the minds of the people of the East. Greece gained wealth of temple and city, plundered and sent home by the soldiers of his army, but she lost the thousands of strong men who made up that army. Those who remained at home were the physically unfit. The consequence was that the Greek race declined physically, while the new-found wealth sapped its moral vigor.

Division of the Empire 26. The Hellenic World after the Death of Alexander.— Alexander's infant son was unable to hold his empire, and it was accordingly divided up between four of his generals, 1

¹ The wars between Alexander's generals are called the wars of succession. At their close there grew up three great states: Egypt, Syria, and Macedonia. Hellas fell a prey first to one and then to another of these powers. Curiously it was during this period of political decline in general that the most successful unions of city-states were made in Hellas. Achea had not played an important part in earlier Greek history, although the name Achean will be remembered as applied by Homer to the conquerors of the Myceneans. The cities of Achea during the third century B.C. formed a league which later took in all the city-states of the Peloponnesus except Sparta and Elis. Its constitution resembles that of the American confederation from 1783 to 1788, and also, but

among whom the most important was Ptolemy, who chose for his share the rich, ancient land of Egypt, adding later by conquest the region of Syria. He made his capital at Alexandria, which was the royal seat of his descendants until nearly the beginning of the Christian era. Some of the Ptolemies were patrons of learning and of public works, but the greater number were of weak or depraved character.

The century of the spread of Hellenic ideas saw a great Aristotle advance in philosophical knowledge. Aristotle wrote weighty scientific works and established a school at Athens where many sciences were taught. His travels enabled him to gain geographical knowledge and to collect specimens of plants and animals for classification. His thought was so profound that, in the middle ages, his works were reverenced by learned men with a respect almost equal to that given the Bible.

During the later Greek period we also find two widely Epicurus differing systems of ethics, the science of conduct. The and the Athenian Epicurus preached that happiness is to be sought above all else, but by happiness he meant the knowledge that one has acted honorably in all the relations. Epicurean school of thinkers, however, departed from their founder's teachings, in that they regarded any sort of happiness as right. To such men no higher ideal would appeal than the famous saying attributed to the Epicureans, "Eat, drink, and be merry, for to-morrow we die."

Entirely opposed to such teachings were those of Zeno, Zeno and the called the Stoic because he taught in the Stoa (porch) at Athens. Zeno said that man's chief ideal should be virtue,

Epicureans

less obviously, our federal constitution. Twice annually a congress of as many representatives of the cities of the league as cared to attend was held at which important officers were elected. These were a general, a cabinet of ten men, and a senate. Taxation was made by the senate at the advice of the cabinet. Each state had only one vote in congress, without regard to the number of representatives present. Sparta also built up a league, and the struggle between the rival leagues again weakened Greece so that she fell into the hands of Macedon a second time. Soon after this Rome conquered the East and both leagues were merged with the Roman empire.

by which he meant acting according to one's reason. Be good for the sake of being good; not merely be good to be happy, as Epicurus had taught. Unfortunately Stoicism came to mean something as far different from its founder's



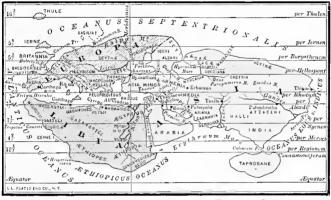
PTOLEMY CROWNED BY UPPER AND LOWER EGYPT. EDFOU

teachings as did Epicureanism. In contrast to the luxurious living of the Epicureans, the Stoics denied themselves many pleasures, because they wished to attain goodness. They even went so far as to say that happiness is a sin, and prided

themselves on their indifference to pleasure and pain. Hence we speak of a man who quietly endures pain as a stoic.

The greatest thinkers of the time lived and worked either Beginnings of at Athens or Alexandria. The germ of the modern university developed at Athens in the so-called Museum. This originated as a religious society for the worship of the muses, goddesses of learning, and the fine arts, and it became a school for the promotion of useful knowledge. Plato taught and Aristotle studied here, but it was at the Academy at

the University



THE WORLD AS KNOWN ABOUT THE TIME OF CHRIST

Athens, a different sort of a school, that the latter taught science. Alexandria possessed an institution along similar lines, established by one of the Ptolemies, endowed with an enormous library of five hundred thousand manuscript books. With such a reference library to draw upon, it is not wonderful that Alexandria became the centre of scientific education.

27. Summary of the Splendor and Decay of Hellas. -From the time of the Persian Wars Athens was the home of great generals, matchless sculptors, brilliant thinkers, and wonderful writers who transformed Athens from a struggling village with no fortifications, little political freedom, and as little commercial importance into the most important city of the eastern Mediterranean. The impress of the work of

these men remains on present civilization, as practically all the foundation for our philosophical ideas and scientific and literary theory was laid by them. Although she exerted this influence intellectually, politically she had little influence. It is true that she developed democratic ideals, but these perished with her political power. The unification of Hellas and the Orient was accomplished by a semi-Greek race under the leadership of one of the world's greatest generals. His work was to spread the Greek civilization over the entire East, to be adopted and modified by Roman and German in turn until our present civilization was produced. Greece was the educator, Rome the organizer, the German race the liberator of Europe.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Distinguish between a federacy and a confederacy. Look up the differences between the Delian and Peloponnesian leagues. Show on an outline map the states belonging or allied to each. Compare the government of Athens with that of our own country in the following particulars, using outline form: name and duties of the executive; name and principal powers of the legislative branch; composition and jurisdiction of the jury. Read the story of Aspasia, the friend of Pericles, and compare the freedom of Athenian women with American. Define metope, pediment, frieze, cornice, architrave, triglyph, entablature. Read the story of Alcibiades. Read Chapter XXI in Botsford and give a summary of the wars between the western Greeks and the Carthaginians Read how Demosthenes the great Athenian orator attempted to warn Athens against Philip of Macedon. Why did the empire of Alexander break up? Compare the Achean and Delian leagues in respect to organization, object, and strength. Describe an Athenian house. Describe the daily life of the Athenian.

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CHAPTER IV

THE BEGINNINGS OF ROME

Historical Geography of Italy 28. Early Italy and its Inhabitants. — The peninsula of Italy projects in a southerly direction from the continent of Europe into the Mediterranean and commands the centre of that great highway of commerce. In area Italy is about equal to California. Its climate, for the most part, is mild in winter and warm and dry in summer. Both climate and soil are extremely favorable to agriculture, and olive groves and vineyards are everywhere. The early Romans thought of Italy as that portion of the peninsula south of the tiny Rubicon River. North of that lay the rich Po river valley, called Cisalpine Gaul. (Gaul on this side of the Alps Mountains.) The backbone of the peninsula was the rugged range of the Apennines. The harbors were all on the west coast, away from Greece and her refining influences.

Rome 753 ? B.C. The city of Rome grew from a settlement upon one of seven hills on the western coast near the mouth of the Tiber River. Its real origin is obscured in legend, and even the date of its founding is unknown, but the Romans regarded the legend as so sacred that they dated time from it. Like other ancient tribes, the Romans built upon a hill and near a river, so that they would have both defence and fresh water if an enemy besieged them.

Early Inhabitants of Italy Just when or how Italy was peopled is at best a matter of conjecture; perhaps it occurred about the same times that the various tribes entered Greece. The same great movement of folk that brought the Myceneans into Greece carried along further a branch of the same race to settle north of the Tiber along the western shore, where they founded a kingdom known as Etruria.¹ These Etruscans, or Tuscans

The Etruscans

¹ Italy had been peopled long before the Myceneans first came. In early Roman times fragments of prehistoric races, such as the Ligurians,



EARLY ITALY

as they were called by their neighbors, developed an important civilization which had great influence on the early development of Rome. Among their contributions to Rome were the methods of interpreting signs and omens, and the essentials of government; for tradition relates that Etruscan kings ruled over Rome.



ETRUSCAN WAR CHARIOT

The Italians

About the time that the Acheans overthrew the Mycenean Greeks, the kinsmen of the former, driving their flocks before them, found their way through the winding passes of the Alps and across the Po valley into the mountains of Italy. These tribes soon won control over all Italy south of the Rubicon River and east of the Tiber, except the lower existed in the northwest, and the Venetians in the northeast. These races finally disappeared, exterminated by the newcomers or assimilated with them in marriage.

part of the peninsula, which had been colonized by the Greeks. The Italians were an agricultural and pastoral people and contributed the sturdiness of character so noticeable in the Roman

The Greek cities established colonies in lower Italy and The Greeks Sicily, notably at Syracuse, Rhegium, and at Messina, which so recently suffered from a tidal wave and earthquake. Of equal importance were Tarentum, on the gulf of the same name, and Naples, an important commercial city on the southwestern coast on a beautiful bay overshadowed by



STRAITS OF MESSINA

This narrow strait was feared by the ancients who believed that two monsters dwelt there and destroyed all passing ships and devoured their

Sicily lies at the left of the picture; Italy at the right. The nearness of Sicily to Italy was an important factor in moulding Roman history.

Mount Vesuvius, the dreaded volcano of Italy. Because of the supremacy of the Greeks in lower Italy and in Sicily, the name Greater Greece was applied to all that region.

The Greeks soon entered into commercial relations with their northern neighbors and became the teachers of the Italian tribes.1

¹ About the time that Xenophon made his famous Persian march, a barbarous tribe known as the Gauls or Celts invaded the valley of the Roman Legends 29. The Legends of Old Rome. — We know little about the first centuries of Roman history. In order to account for customs already established, the Romans invented the names of imaginary heroes and described their supposed deeds.¹ After much repetition the Romans believed these stories and added considerable detail to them, but it should be remembered that all the records of the city were destroyed when the Gauls sacked Rome about 390 B.C. How the Romans could get such faulty ideas about their early history will be better understood if you attempt to imagine the amount of accuracy that there would be in a history written by yourself of the last two hundred years of American history without reference to any book.

It is true that some real historic information may be obtained from an examination of the monuments and other structures that remain in the city, but unfortunately few of these date back earlier than the third century before our

Po and made a settlement there. For a time they threatened to conquer all Italy, for their war-bands ravaged the fields of the Italians and captured and sacked the city of Rome. Driven back at last into the Po valley, they settled there and gave their name to the region. They did little for the culture of Italy except to draw the Italian tribes together to act against a common danger, and so perhaps aided Rome in her later work.

¹ The Romans believed that the city of Rome was founded by Romulus, a great warrior, who, when an infant, had been left to die on a river bank, but was saved and adopted by a wolf. He became king of his people, established the city of Rome on a hill south of the Tiber, and ruled wisely. During his reign the city of Rome spread from its original site on the Palatine Hill over other neighboring hills, and various Italian tribes were conquered and incorporated into the Roman people. This story was invented to explain how the city was founded. Romulus was probably one of the gods of the Romans of centuries before. The Romans accounted for their religious customs as follows: Romulus was succeeded on the throne by a king named Numa, who was very religious and who drew up their laws of religion. Other stories told of the enlargement of Roman territory; of the subjugation of other Italian cities; of the origin of the military system of Rome; of the gradual division of the population into serfs and nobles; of the increasing wealth of the latter; of the alleged tyranny of later kings and their downfall; of the establishment of a republican form of government; and of strife between the nobles or patricians and the serfs or plebeians for power in this new government.

era. Most of the early history, then, is made up of traditions handed down from father to son plus fictitious incidents added by persons of vivid imagination.

Among the primitive Romans certain men took the leadership by virtue of their strength and valor, and thus a monarchy was established by common consent. As the society of Rome became more complex, the wealthy exerted more and more political power, until they were able to drive out the kings and to establish an oligarchy, which, veiling itself behind a few democratic features, called itself the Roman republic.

30. Primitive Roman Society. — The unit of Roman society was the family. This consisted not only of a man, his wife and children, but included also all of the same blood: cousins, uncles, grandchildren, etc. The governing power lay in the hands of the oldest male, the father of the family. Each family had its own set of gods, its own rules of conduct. For this reason, when a woman married, a religious ceremony was held to denote her adoption into the family. After the ceremony she was entitled to share in all the privileges accorded to other women in her new family, and she lost all rights in the family from which she had come.

In the course of time a family had so many branches that Families exit became necessary for each branch to be represented at the councils by certain leading men. Such a family is called a clan or gens. The clan had its own chief for leader in war or for high priest in peace, and its council of the elder men. A number of clans frequently associated themselves for purposes of defence. This union of clans was called the curia. In the curia the chiefs formed an executive council or senate and one of their number was chosen to lead in war. A still more elaborate form of government was the tribe, in which we find similar elements of government. As at Athens, various tribes, living on the hills now the site of Rome, combined into a city-state, having a king, senate, and an assembly of the leading men of the curias.1

¹ Latin colonists of the tribe of Ramnes or Romans built a village on the Palatine Hill. An Italian tribe, known as the Sabines, settled on

Summary of Early History

The Roman Family the Unit of Society

Origin of Religious Ceremony of Marriage

pand into Clans: Clans into Curias: Curias into Tribes: and Tribes combine to Form the City-State

Classes of Society There were two classes of society among the early Romans—the patricians and plebeians. The former were nobles and the latter had no political rights until they won them. The former were descendants of the original population of Rome, but the plebeians were sprung from the people conquered by Rome in her wars, or from those whom the kings brought into the city.¹ As the patricians became more and more powerful in government, they were disposed to treat the king and all his dependents with more harshness, and denied all political rights to the plebeians.

Regal Constitution of Rome

ELEMENTS	Composition and Term	Powers
King	One, elected for life by popular vote of patri- cians	War-chief, high priest, chief judge
Senate	The number of senators was fixed by law until late in Roman history and then it was frequently changed. The senate was composed of the clan-chiefs, who served for life	An advisory body. In the interval between the reign of one king and the election of his successor, the senate assigned to its members the duties of the king. This interval was known as an interregnum, and the senator temporarily filling the office was called the interrex
Comitia curiata or assembly of the curias	Composed of all patricians of the curias able to provide themselves with equipment for war	This body met at the call of the king or interrex to approve laws which he pro- posed, to ratify his acts, or to elect his successor

the Quirinal Hill nearby. One of the many interesting legends of Rome tells of the seizure of Sabine women for wives by Roman men and of the resulting union of these tribes. While we do not know how the tribes united, it is certain that their union and the addition of a third tribe of Etruscan origin was the beginning of the Roman state. The third tribe was the Luceres, who settled on the Celian Mount.

¹ Dr. Botsford does not believe that the social classes originated in the manner described above, but rather that the "plebeians were like the commons of most other states of ancient or modern times." There is good authority, however, for the classification given.

The rights of the patrician became fixed as follows: to Their Rights hold public office; to make laws; to hold property securely; to marry the woman of his choice; and, if accused of crime. to demand a public trial in the patrician court. The plebeian had none of the former rights: he could neither hold office nor attend meetings of the assembly or of the senate; he had no standing in the courts of law; he could not own property nor marry out of his class. Newcomers brought in by the patricians and dependent upon them were known as clients. While they had no legal rights, their lot was much happier than that of the plebeians.

cestor Wor-

31. The Religion of the Early Romans. - The early Nature Worreligion of the Romans was very simple, consisting of the ship and Anworship of the powers of nature and of the family ancestors. ship Each household had its family altar on which the father, in his role of priest, offered up sacrifices to the family gods and protecting spirits which were known as Lares and Penates. As they came into contact with the Etruscans, the Romans borrowed from them their belief in signs and omens and established certain offices for those who could interpret the meaning of a flight of birds or of the motions of a dying animal slaughtered for that purpose. Such officers, called augurs or haruspices, became very powerful in matters of government, because, like the Greeks, the Romans made a practice of consulting the wishes of the gods before undertaking any important enterprise.

The Greeks, who came up from southern Italy to trade Influence of with the Romans, brought with them their beautiful legends the Greek and myths, and before long the Romans identified the gods and goddesses of Hellas with their own nature deities. religion soon became very complex and had great political importance. Before declaring war or making peace, the colleges or societies of augurs were consulted. As these officials were stationed at Rome, the growing city became the religious centre of the Italian peninsula.¹ Religious festivals and games were frequently held at different seasons

¹ When pagan Rome became Christian Rome, this religious preeminence of Rome over the other cities of the Roman empire remained

Religion

of the year, at which sacrifices were offered up in payment of vows made by citizens who considered that they had successfully sought the favor of the gods.

The Life of an Early Roman

The Roman boy was trained at first by his parents and later by his schoolmaster to respect his elders, to obey the laws, and to lead a virtuous life. He learned little from books, but much from example. His education included the practical subjects of how to manage his estate, to cultivate his fields, and to understand his country's laws. When he became of age the Roman served for a short time in the cavalry. After performing his duty to the state in that particular, he returned to his home, married, and became the solid citizen of the next generation. Like the Athenian. the Roman patrician made a business of politics; neither thought he was getting into an ungentlemanly occupation when he became a professional office-holder, as do some of our own countrymen who regard politics as beneath them. The girl's education was more limited. As a woman had no right to hold property, and as her only duties were those of the mother and housewife, the girl of old Rome learned whatever was decided for her by her father, and later by her husband, as unquestionably her duty.

Education of a Roman Girl

Importance of Precedent and of the Roman Religion To understand Roman history we must know the extent to which the Roman was ruled by precedent. The father was absolute over his family because of precedent. When the young Roman in his turn became a father and the head of a new family, he found that he had exchanged the tyranny of one father for the tyranny of many fathers, for wherever he went he was subject to the established customs of Rome. If he violated these customs his name might be erased from the roll of the senate by the censors, officers whose duties were to look out for just such offences, or else he might be prosecuted for violation of the law. These customs were largely a result of the teachings of the Roman religion, in which the family and its tradition was the chief object of worship. The good results of this system were that the Roman became

as one of the determining causes of the prominence of the Roman bishop. (See p. 133.)

the lawmaker for the world. Our legal codes and methods of action are in many cases based directly upon Roman custom and law.

32. The Establishment of the Republic. - Tradition relates that the last king of Rome, a man named Tarquin. was of Etruscan birth. According to these legends. both Tarquin and his family were haughty and tyrannical. At length the Romans rebelled under the leadership of Brutus and drove the kings out of Rome. A republic was established and two consuls were annually elected to perform the duties hitherto devolving upon the king. Probably the last kings were Etruscan conquerors, who ruled Rome with a firm hand and introduced many good customs. One of the last kings organized a new assembly, in which the more influential of the plebeians had some power. This was called the comitia centuriata, because it was made up of centuries or companies.

These reforms were displeasing to the patricians. They were further incensed at the king's favors to the plebeians, many of whom were doubtless his own countrymen, who had followed him to Rome and had settled there under his protection.² To prevent the further breaking down of old customs, the patricians stirred up revolution and regained control, taking care to divide the powers, formerly exercised by the king, between two men called consuls, who were to act as checks on each other. They were further restrained by annual election. In later years the patricians sought to justify their rebellion in the eyes of all classes by painting the characters of the last kings as black as possible. It is quite possible that the Tarquins were no worse than most of their contemporaries, and that the evil deeds attributed to them were wholly imagined by the patricians.

33. Establishment of Roman Supremacy in Italy. — The Wars for Innewly established republic found it necessary to secure recognition from its former mistress, Etruria, as did our own country from Great Britain. For many years Rome was

dependence

¹ These and other legends of Rome were related by patricians, and were always biased strongly in favor of that order.

² See note on page 72.

at war with the neighboring Etruscan cities, but at last they not only recognized the independence, but also the supremacy of Rome. Shortly after this occurred the invasion of the



ROMAN LEGIONARY SOLDIERS
Showing armor and method of formation.

Gauls. The city of Rome was captured and only the citadel was saved from destruction by the fire in which perished all the official records of old Rome. The other Latin cities aided in driving back the invaders, and a league of offence and defence was formed by the cities of Latium, with Rome at the head.

This league was of great help to Rome in the series of wars to follow.

Wars for Conquest

One of the most serious of these was the series of campaigns known as the Samnite Wars. The Samnites were a race of shepherds living in the mountains of central Italy, south of Latium. They quarrelled with their kinsmen in Campania, the fertile plain extending along the coast south of Latium, in which were many Greek towns of considerable culture and wealth. The Campanians appealed to Rome to aid them against the Samnites, and after a protracted struggle Samnium was conquered and became subject to Rome.

Rome now proceeded on a definite policy of conquest. In spite of revolts on the part of the Latin allies and of ineffectual protests from other Italian tribes, she organized the governments in these lands to suit herself. Alarmed at Rome's aggressions, Tarentum, the most powerful and wealthy of the Greek cities, declared war against Rome. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, came over to help his countrymen. The Romans were at first troubled at the coming of this ally of their foes, but after they had lost several battles they so

weakened his army that he was forced to retire from Italy. The Greeks were punished for presuming to war on Rome, and all Italy south of the Rubicon passed under the Roman voke.1

These wars were of immense benefit to Italy. The various General Repeoples were combined under the leadership of a strong nation; the good points of each people were assimilated by the Romans; the plebeians gained equality with the patricians by refusing to fight at critical times unless the patricians granted them certain concessions; Roman culture was brought to many tribes which were barbarian at the beginning of the struggle; Rome was trained in the art of war so that she was able to compete successfully with her strong rival. Carthage.

sults of these

At the close of these wars Rome found herself with greater Roman Land territories than before. She took possession of some of the conquered land, and dividing it up into large farms, used it to pay off the veteran soldiers who had helped win it.2 A portion of the land was retained by the government and rented to rich contractors, who hoped to make a great profit from it. The latter practice gave rise to frauds, exactly as has a similar practice in the western part of the United States. Rich men obtained possession of government land by illegal methods and then claimed to own it. Large estates began at this time to be common, and with the decline of small farming, slavery with all its evils increased.

In some parts of Italy the Roman government established Colonies towns and promised all the rights of Roman citizenship, except that of voting in the assembly, to those who would

¹ In early Roman history the conquered army had to pass under a low gate formed by sticking two spears into the ground and fastening a third spear across the tops of them. This bore a faint resemblance to a voke, such as was used for cattle, and signified that the vanquished passed into servitude to the conqueror; hence the phrase "sub jugum." or "under the yoke."

² The American government adopted a similar policy after the Revolutionary War, granting tracts of land to its creditors, among them the old soldiers.

³ The Roman had nearly the same conception of citizenship as that expressed in the American Declaration of Independence. He wanted

go out from Rome to colonize them. Such towns were called Latin colonies, to distinguish them from a different form of colony which possessed all the rights of citizenship and which was called a Roman colony. The Roman idea of a colony differed considerably from that of the Greeks. p. 30.)

Roman Dependencies

There were other classes of communities besides colonies at this time in Italy. As Rome extended her conquests to include all of southern Italy, she became the mistress of the Greek cities. These she made into municipia or prefectures: the former if they assented to, the latter if they resisted her plans for their government. The municipia were towns that retained their local governments, but whose citizens might obtain Roman citizenship in time if they satisfied certain requirements: such as to serve in the Roman army and to pay a share in the expense of government. The prefectures were less favored. They were the towns which had caused Rome the most trouble, and accordingly were not allowed to govern themselves, but were ruled by military governors, called prefects, who were sent from Rome to rule over them. As Roman influence extended in the peninsula, a few of the Italian cities were treated as allies by Rome and shared in her general prosperity. The unfortunate country folk of Italy, whose lands were seized by Rome for her soldiers, were treated as subjects. The peoples of Italy at the close of the conquest of that peninsula may be grouped as follows:

(1) Those having complete citizenship

Roman citizens and Roman colonists

(2) Those having partial citizen-

Latin colonists, municipia Prefectures, allies, subjects

(3) Those having no citizenship

It will be noted that class (3) comprises widely differing groups.

protection and justice, the right to vote, and the right to gain and hold property in safety. His ideas of the duties of a citizen were similar to ours. He must pay taxes for the support of his government and fight for her if necessary.

34. Italy and the Conquest of the Mediterranean. -When Rome entered upon her conquest of the Mediterranean region, the important states outside of Italy were Carthage. a colony of Phenicia, and the three kingdoms into which the dominions of Alexander had been divided by the wars of succession. Carthage, located on the northern coast of Africa opposite Sicily, was attempting to gain the commercial leadership of the Mediterranean and to add to her territory by the conquest of Sicily. A company of brigands seized the Sicilian city of Messina, and when attacked by the allied forces of Syracuse and Carthage, they appealed to Rome for aid. This began a terrible contest for supremacy. which

¹ The first war, which began in the manner described above, consisted of an intermittent warfare of twenty-four years (264-241 B.C.). Forced to build a fleet in order to meet the Carthaginians on the sea, the Romans ginian Wars became skilful sailors as a result of this war. Carthage was compelled to pay a large indemnity to Rome, and Sicily became a protectorate and soon after the first province of Rome.

For over twenty years after the first Carthaginian War a semblance of peace was maintained between Rome and Carthage. In the meantime a great Carthaginian general, named Hannibal, completed the conquest of the lower part of the Spanish peninsula, which he organized as a Carthaginian province. Spain was rich in agricultural and mineral products; hence Rome was unwilling to permit such a valuable territory to remain in the possession of her foes. When an independent city on the eastern shore of Spain, Saguntum, appealed to her for aid against Hannibal, Rome again declared war on Carthage. In this war (218-202 B.C.) Rome found an antagonist worthy of her steel. Not waiting for the Romans to strike the first blow, Hannibal led his army from Spain, through the passes of the Alps, enduring terrible hardships, into the fertile plains of northern Italy. Within a few months he had defeated three Roman armies and made the name of Hannibal ever fearful to the Romans. At length the Romans, wearying of the policy of delay, maintained by their leader Fabius in an attempt to exhaust the resources of the Carthaginian army, resolved to muster an overwhelming force and to attempt to destroy Hannibal. The two armies met at Cannae, and although the Romans outnumbered the Carthaginians four to one, Hannibal's generalship won the day. The Roman army was nearly annihilated. After this overwhelming defeat the Romans feared that Hannibal would attack their city, but he thought best to secure re-enforcements and to win to his side some of the Italian cities that were discontented with the tyrannical government of Rome. Unfortunately for Hannibal, the re-enforcements did not arrive. His brother, who had

Summary of the Carthaended in the destruction of Carthage and the mastery of the western Mediterranean by Rome; a contest which also led to Roman mastery in the eastern Mediterranean. Incensed at the Macedonian attempt to aid the Carthaginians in these wars, Rome sent her armies into the powerful kingdoms that had grown up on the ruins of Alexander's empire. One after the other, Macedonia, Syria, and Egypt were conquered or overawed by the young republic of the West. Macedonia was made a province; Egypt and Syria became protectorates. The Greek cities were plundered for their wealth and objects of art. The Mediterranean had become a Roman lake.

Results of the Wars of Conquest Carthage was nominally a republic, but her government was no better than that of Rome, because the political power was controlled by a few of the more wealthy families. Her religion and morals were those of the East, and many degrading beliefs were held by her people. The Carthaginians

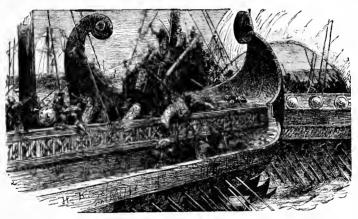
been carrying on the war in Spain during his absence, was surprised by the Romans, while hurrying to Hannibal's aid, and his army destroyed. The first news of this disaster received by Hannibal was the bloody head of his brother, which, by order of the Roman general, was thrown into his camp soon after the battle.

For a few years thereafter Hannibal held his ground in southern Italy, but at last he was recalled to Carthage by a faction hostile to him. On the soil of his own country, practically betrayed by his treacherous countrymen, he made a last stand against the Roman Scipio, and received the first defeat of his brilliant career. Thus overwhelmed for the second time, Carthage ceded Spain to Rome, burned her navy, promised a huge indemnity, and agreed to become dependent upon Rome for her foreign policy. Rome was now the mistress of the West.

Scipio was the idol of the hour and received the honorary title of Africanus in recognition of his victory over Hannibal. He had previously destroyed the Carthaginian power in Spain, which was soon organized into two provinces of Rome. Yet Rome was still unsatisfied. Giving as a pretext that Carthage had acted treacherously toward an ally of Rome, the Romans forced the Carthaginians to give up their weapons. Cato, an austere Roman then prominent in public life, demanded that Carthage be destroyed. Scipio's grandson by adoption was commissioned to carry out the destruction of the ancient city, and after a short but bloody war (150–146 B.C.) the Roman legions took the city, burned it to the ground, and ploughed up its site, to efface it more surely from the memory of man.

were not as good soldiers as the Romans, hence the government employed many mercenaries who deserted in time of danger. If Carthage had won, the whole trend of European history would have been changed. The purer standards of the Romans prevailed and saved Europe from as threatening an attempt to give her the civilization of the East as was the Persian attack on Greece.

At the close of the first Carthaginian War Sicily became a The First protectorate or protected state under the influence of the Roman Prov-



ROMAN BOARDING BRIDGE

A great swinging bridge was attached to the prow of the Roman vessel. When the vessel was brought near enough, the bridge was dropped on to the enemy's ship.

Roman government. Rome had the right to dictate to the nominal ruler of Sicily what foreign policy he should pursue. Little by little Rome exercised more control over Sicily, until the power of the native princes ceased entirely and Sicily was organized as a province of the Roman republic. Not long afterward the islands of Sardinia and Corsica, the district of Cisalpine Gaul, the peninsula of Spain, the northern coast of Africa, and Macedonia were successively erected into provinces.

The Provincial System

The government of the provinces was quite different from that of other Roman territories. The provincials, until the time of Caesar, were regarded as subjects of Rome and as sources of revenue for those politically powerful in the home government. The governor of a province, termed proconsul or proprietor, was chosen by the Roman senate to be the absolute military commander, judge, and general executive officer over the province. He supervised the collection of the tribute due to Rome, and the senate did not care how he secured this tribute. As a result the administrations of these provincial governors were notoriously corrupt. collecting of taxes was farmed-out, or put out on contract to a class of professional tax-gatherers, called publicans. whose methods were so cruel and arbitrary that the name publican became a term of reproach in the provinces. ("Publicans and sinners," the Bible.) In some cases the provincials appealed to Rome to protect them from the greed of their rulers, who grew enormously wealthy on the money wrung from the people by repeated taxation. In every case the governors were able to buy their acquittal from the corrupt home senate. Cicero, a famous Roman writer and statesman, thus jests concerning the methods of one of these governors: "In the first year he could secure booty for himself: in the second year for his friends; in the third year for his judges." The proceeds of this dishonest system were employed by those in control of Roman politics to beautify the city of Rome and to furnish the common people with amusements. In this way the conscience of the Roman people became deadened to the evils suffered by the provinces. Rome was sowing for a terrible harvest.

35. Summary of Early Roman History. — The Roman republic, Europe's organizer, began in a settlement of shepherds upon seven hills near the mouth of the Tiber River. Because the Romans possessed what the Greeks lacked, the power of uniting city-states, this settlement became a regal city whose influence began to be felt throughout all Italy. Having driven out her kings, Rome adopted an aristocratic form of republican government. One by one she conquered

her neighbors in Italy and showed her genius for organization by the governments she set up in them. From Italy her greed led her to attack the Phenician colony of Carthage, her strongest rival for Mediterranean commerce. Even the great general Hannibal could not stop her armies, which overran Spain, northern Africa, Greece, and Asia Minor. The enormous profits of these wars caused the growth of a capitalistic class at Rome, which soon took possession of the government for its own purposes, displacing the former nobility and creating many difficult political and economic problems. How the attempts to solve these problems caused a vital change in the Roman government is the subject of the next chapter.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Show on an outline map of the Mediterranean region the states, cities, sites of battles, rivers, and mountains mentioned in the chapter. Show the provinces gained by Rome during these wars. Relate the myth of Romulus and Remus, the Tarquins; read in some more extended work the account of the Decemvirs and their reforms; the organization of the Roman army; the gradual rise of the plebeians. Explain the significance of each of the names of Scipio (Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus). Relate the story of the destruction of Corinth.

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Carthage; Growth of Roman Power in Asia Minor; Territorial
Expansion of Rome.

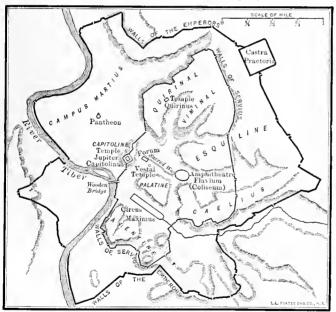


RITUAL SCENE, PALATINE WALL PAINTING

CHAPTER V

THE CHANGE FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE

36. The Relations between Classes. — This period is one Phases of the of struggles which may be summed up under three principal Revolution heads: a struggle between the classes of people within the



MAP OF THE CITY OF ROME

city of Rome, a struggle between Rome and her subjects in the Italian peninsula, and a struggle between Rome and her provinces. Class struggles are always very bitter. Causes of Class Hatred

(r) Growth of Great Fortunes Today some people talk about the wrongs inflicted on the poorer class by those possessed of great fortunes. This same cause of class dissensions existed in old Rome. A few men took advantage of their influence in governmental affairs to build dishonest fortunes. Others gained wealth in perfectly legal ways, yet ways that worked hardship to those less able to make a success of their business. To such unfortunates a wealthy man was an object of envy, because they saw the rich man enjoying many luxuries of life that they were unable to earn. One reason for the growth of hatred between the rich and poor was the great increase in wealth that resulted from the wars.

(2) Changes in Roman Character Almost all of the rich men of the time imported costly foods and articles of clothing from the more luxurious East. It was thought fashionable to copy the manners and customs of the orientals because they were new and seemed to give greater refinement to life. This changed the character of the wealthy Roman. He became luxurious and lazy and contemptuous of the old Roman virtues and ideals. But the poor did not change, so the classes grew apart for this reason also.

(3) Lowering of Moral Standards

As in our own times, all the rich did not acquire their wealth honestly. Unless a man sets up for himself a good standard of honesty in business matters, he is apt to become weak in the power of choosing between right and wrong in other matters. This is what happened in Rome when the standards of business honesty declined. Although a few right-minded men saw that things were not being well done and attempted to preach reform, the mass of the people were eager to follow the example of those who seemed so successful in business. The result was that they regarded honesty and truth and virtue as old-fashioned. Another cause of class struggles was the lowering of moral standards. The earlier Roman had been content to live frugally on his small estate, cultivating his fields with his own hand, aided by his sons and servants. As Rome became the centre of fashion and luxury, the Roman farmer of simple tastes and honest life was regarded by the city dwellers as

(4) Decline of Small Farming and Growth of Mob Spirit more or less of a clown. In order to have any standing in the community, a man must own a large estate. Manual labor was despised. For this reason small farming became unprofitable. Soon those who had small farms were glad to dispose of them to the wealthy, who combined many of them into larger estates. The small farmer moved to Rome, where he speedily drifted into the position of a man without a job —the idler, ready to join the city mob of those who expected the rich to support them. He thus lost the old spirit of Roman independence and became a beggar, easily moved by crafty politicians to clamor for unwise laws of every description.1

The rich man necessarily imported a great number of (5) Growth of slaves to work his large farms. At the same time the poor freeman thought it beneath his dignity to work at the same task beside a slave. Deprived of work, he became a pauper dependent upon public charity. This gave him no love for the rich and led to class struggles.

37. Relations between Rome and her Subjects. - In Old Roman the earlier days of the republic Rome's policy toward the conquered cities and races in Italy had been one of assimilation. By this is meant that Rome held out the promise of future incorporation into the Roman state to a conquered city. Perhaps this policy was not stated in as many words at the time. We may question whether the purposes of this policy were at any time wholly unmixed with a certain selfishness which led the Romans to understand that by conciliating their conquered foes they might themselves gain.

As Rome became more powerful she no longer felt the Change of need of conciliating her subjects and allies in Italy. She accordingly granted the rights of Latin colonists no longer, and withdrew from many towns privileges already enjoyed.

Slavery

Policy concerning Dependencies

Policy

¹ The landless Roman who returned to Rome was, nevertheless, a voter in the popular assembly, the comitia tributa, or assembly of the tribes, which had displaced the assembly of the centuries. As the standard of morality declined, he was quite as justified in earning his livelihood by selling his vote as was the rich man who reaped a fortune from government contracts.

Thus the policy of assimilation was abandoned. A course which roused as strong a spirit of resentment in the hearts of the subject Italians as did the legislation of parliament on the eve of our war for independence, but every attempt at revolt was ruthlessly crushed by the prefects sent by Rome.

Struggle between Rome and her Provinces

The system of farming the taxes in the provinces (see p. 82) caused great hardships and led to discontent with Roman rule. In order to enforce their demands the governors called for large garrisons to prevent any political outbreak by the provincials. Governing by means of an army has caused many rebellions. The case of the English colonists in America is an illustration.

38. Plans to Correct these Evils. - That the Romans recognized that conditions were not wholesome is proved by the fact that several men tried to reform conditions, among

them Cato and Scipio.

Cato

Marcus Cato, who lived at the time of the destruction of Carthage, belonged to a family of small landowners of ancient lineage, and represented the ideals and virtues of old Rome. He despised the evidences of luxury and set no store on great wealth. Especially repugnant to him was the dishonesty of men in public and private life. As censor he exerted some influence in causing public condemnation of those who gave the strongest examples of wrong-doing. For many years he restrained the downward tendency of Roman morals.

Scipio Africanus

Scipio Africanus, the Younger, was a Roman noble, who had sadly carried out the order for the destruction of Carthage. He was a broader minded man than Cato, yet lacked his determination, and on that account exerted even less influence for reform than Cato had done immediately before him. Both Cato and Scipio believed that a return to the old habits of life of the primitive Roman was necessary before the evils in the state could be corrected.

Tiberius Gracchus

The second plan for reform was urged by Tiberius Gracchus, the elder of two famous brothers. He was the grandson of that Scipio who had defeated Hannibal, and he inherited from his mother the same intrepid courage which had distinguished the elder Africanus. Although an aristocrat by birth, he was able to see the wrong-doings of his class; while his love of fair play made him champion the poor against the injustice of the rich. For this reason he was regarded

as a traitor to his class. When as tribune of the people 1 he proposed that the government of Rome should confiscate all estates larger than five hundred acres (about two hundred and fifty of our acres), that the lands thus secured should be divided into small farms and granted to worthy poor men on the sole condition that should not sell them, he was actively opposed by the men of wealth.

There are many people who believe that the rights of man are higher and to be considered before the rights of proper-



SCIPIO AFRICANUS MAJOR

ty. Others argue that only by respecting the rights of property can the rights of man be secured. This question is as live today as it was in the days of the Gracchi, and there are many honest men to be found upholding each side of the argument.

¹The famous historian Mommsen says that he ruled practically as absolute ruler, "watched over the distribution of grain, selected jurymen, founded colonies in person, notwithstanding that his magistracy legally chained him to the city, regulated highways and concluded business contracts, led the discussions of the senate, settled the consular elections"; in short, he accustomed Rome to one-man rule. In many respects he was like one of our own recent presidents—honest, aggressive, fearless, sometime lacking in tact, a master of politics—and he possessed the priceless gift of being able to attach people to himself.

Q0

In short, Gracchus believed that the accumulation of large estates had been accomplished by harsh and unfair means, with the consequence that the small landholders had been deprived of their livelihood. He also believed that the veterans should be granted small farms on which to spend their declining years. The rich men feared that this policy would create a desire for greater concessions to the poor, as a result of which a complete change in the government would be brought about. They induced one of the tribunes to veto a law embodying the ideas of Gracchus. Contrary to law, Gracchus induced the assembly to pass the law embodying his ideas over the tribune's veto and also to arrange for a commission of three men to superintend the execution of the law. This last was of great importance, for a law not enforced is of little importance.

Land Laws

Murder of Tiberius Gracchus

The rich men were enraged at the fear of losing their property and delayed the election of candidates for the city offices until the mob rose to compel the re-election of Tiberius, who was again a candidate for the office of tribune. Then the rich senators declared that he had incited rebellion against the government, and arming themselves, attacked him and his too zealous partisans. In the street riot which followed Tiberius Gracchus was killed. Like John Brown he attacked the rights of property, and in his zeal to bring about good, he broke the laws of his country and paid the penalty with his life, but his spirit went marching on. the next few years after his death the committee on the allotment of public lands provided by his famous agrarian (land) law had settled nearly one hundred thousand small farms. If this movement could have continued, many of the evils that later overwhelmed the republic might have been averted; for the small farmer has more interest in the cultivation of his land and is more apt to be a sturdy, honest, patriotic citizen than the pampered aristocrat, whose every wish is anticipated by slaves, and whose interest in his estate is limited to the amount of money he can get from it.

Ten years later the younger brother, Gaius Gracchus, came forward with a third plan for reform; namely, to re-establish

the policy of assimilation, in order to win to the government Reforms of the support and good-will of the provincials, also to encourage Gaius Gracthe needy Romans to colonize. On this platform he was elected tribune and had an opportunity to put his plan into execution.

Gaius established a Roman colony on the site of ruined Carthage, where many needy citizens found homes and for-The members of the senate believed he was usurping their constitutional powers and took up arms against him as they had done against his brother. Another street battle was fought and history repeated itself. In despair over the fatal ending of his plans, Gaius committed suicide. Plutarch says the people showed how much they regretted the Gracchi, for they had statues of the two brothers set up and offered sacrifices on the spot where they fell.

The Americans in 1776 found it necessary to defy the established laws and precedents of the British nation. They took up the sword in rebellion to secure the rights they claimed under their understanding of the constitution of England. As a result, a new constitution was formed. The same thing happened at Rome. The Gracchi attempted to bring about reforms peacefully, yet were unwilling to abide by the laws of Rome. By aligning class against class and by accustoming Rome to one-man rule they did much to bring on a revolution whose end was far from what they had wished to accomplish.

39. Civil Strife between Marius and Sulla. - Although Jugurthine the people revered the memory of the Gracchi, the wealthy were again in control of the government. They undid all the work of the brothers: the agrarian law was repealed; the colonies were recalled; the newly gained rights of the poor were all repealed or nullified. The government settled once more into its wallow in the mire of political corruption. The senate took bribes to allow Jugurtha to usurp the throne of a state dependent on Rome, but a few of the better minded senators forced the country to make war on him. In this war two of the strongest figures in Roman history received their training.

Early Career of Marius

The first of these was Marius. He was born of an obscure family. Coarse and violent in nature, he was nevertheless brave and patriotic, and possessed great powers of concentration and endurance. A natural captain of men, he quickly rose to the chief command in the war, defeated Iugurtha, and sent him in chains to Rome. later, as consul in command of the Roman army, he met the first onset of the Germanic race and defeated it in two great campaigns in southern Gaul and the valley of the Po. For five hundred years these barbarians were checked, and lingered on the borders of Roman civilization. On his return to Rome he was for the sixth time chosen consul contrary to the constitution. He became the champion of the popular party, which was called the Marian party. When he attempted to force reforms upon the unwilling senate, street fighting again began between the senatorial and Marian parties, and as a result Marius lost popularity and went into exile.

Early Career of Sulla

In the meantime his great rival, Sulla, had come rapidly to the front. This young aristocrat had seen service in the Tugurthine War, in which Marius had first gained prominence, and it was Sulla who had brought the conquered Jugurtha to Rome. He soon became a leader of the senatorial party and bitterly opposed the illegal candidacy of Marius for the consulship. When Marius was for the time driven from public life, Sulla found a new antagonist in his own rank in the person of Drusus. An aristocrat and son of the man who had been most opposed to the Gracchi, Drusus became converted to the policy of assimilation and held that the Italians should all receive citizenship in the Roman state. When he attempted to secure the passage of such a law he was murdered by the aristocrats. His death aroused the Italians to a desperate revolt. The rebels had almost reached the gates of Rome when the Roman army under the leadership of Sulla met and totally defeated them. This victor made Sulla the logical candidate for leadership in the wars of Rome.

Mithridates, king of Pontus, a new risen kingdom of the southeastern coast of the Black Sea, had taken advantage

of the civil strife in Italy to conquer Macedonia, Greece, Beginnings of and Asia. Just as the senate voted for war against Mithri- Military dates, the Marian party regained enough influence in the assembly to order Marius to the command of the Roman forces. Sulla hastily gathered his troops, marched on Rome, and frightened the assembly into a recognition of his right to leadership. This was an epoch-making event. The transition to empire was begun,

Despotism

Reign of Terror

Sulla set out for the East, conquered Mithridates in a The Marian wonderful campaign, and brought the rebellious provinces again under the sway of Rome. In his absence Marius returned to Rome and attempted to discredit the successful general, who was even then winning great victories for his country. For days the streets of Rome ran red with the blood of aristocrats who dared to oppose him. In the midst of this reign of terror Marius died, but his party remained in power for four years more.

His wars successfully ended. Sulla returned to Rome, the The Triumph idol of his army. After overthrowing the hated rule of the Marian party, Sulla became virtually king. The senate voted him the title of perpetual dictator, and he took advantage of his power to inaugurate a complete return to the absolute rule of the senate. All the gains made by the popular party were swept away. He retained his power by means of his loyal army and through the influence of the gratified senate. He rid himself of enemies by wholesale murders, and he posted lists of the names of the men whose deaths he desired. These lists were called proscription lists. Men whose names were on these lists were outlawed and their murders were rewarded. Sulla is said to have remarked grimly upon one occasion: "I have posted now [the names of] all those I can recall; I have forgotten many, but their names will be posted as they occur to me." After four years of absolute power, and after having amassed an enormous fortune, consisting of the property confiscated from those on the proscription lists, Sulla resigned to the restored senate the control of the Roman empire and then retired forever from public life. Apparently the work of fifty years had

been undone. Apparently the good old days of corrupt government officials and grasping senators had come again: really it was but a lull in the great storm that finally swept

away the last vestiges of republican Rome.

40. The Rise of Pompey. — The death of Sulla left Rome leaderless for only a short time, for his unconstitutional invasion of the city of Rome under arms produced important results. Other generals came to Rome and secured election to important positions, and other favors from the senate and assembly, by means of their army. The first to threaten to do this was Sertorius, a leader of the popular party. For a number of years he had lorded over Spain as governor and he had openly defied Sulla to remove him. No serious effort was made to punish him until after Sulla's death, which occurred the year following his retirement into private life. Stung by the fear that Sertorius was planning to lead his armies across southern Gaul and through the passes of the Alps against the city of Rome, the senate commanded Pompey to march against him.

Pompey had served under Sulla, who had for him great affection and had accordingly advanced him in military positions for which he showed great ability. Pompey was an aristocrat of temperate habits, integrity of character, and possessed great personal magnetism, but at this time he was no match for the experienced Sertorius, who successfully resisted all his attempts to bring on a decisive battle. After five years' campaigning Sertorius was murdered by a lieutenant who hoped to receive a reward from Pompey.

On Pompey's return to Rome he found the senate struggling with domestic war. Spartacus, a famous gladiator, had stirred up a vast rebellion of slaves and gladiators. The last stand of the gladiators was in the north of Italy, where they were utterly crushed by Pompey on his return from Spain. He shared with the pretor, Crassus, the honors of this campaign, and both desired as recompense the office of consul. When this honor was refused them they joined forces and marched against Rome and forced the unwilling people to elect them both consuls.

Sertorius

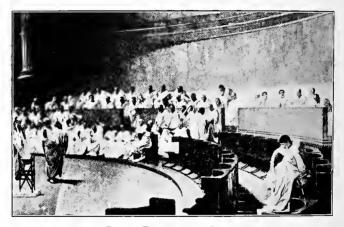
As the commerce and wealth of Rome increased there Pompey and grew up on the shores of the Adriatic Sea a community of men whose sole trade was piracy. They plundered the rich merchant ships carrying the comforts and luxuries of the East to Rome. Because of other wars and the lack of a navy, the government of Rome had been unable to punish these robbers as they deserved. The pirates became so bold that they stopped ships loaded with grain and other necessities, and the people of Rome suffered from famine owing to their depredations. Provincial governors were powerless to check the pirates because they had no jurisdiction outside of their own provinces, whereas the pirates operated over the whole Mediterranean and could easily escape from the shores over which the pursuing governor had authority. At this juncture Pompey was given absolute power over all the Significance shores haunted by the pirates until he had completed their of Pompey's conquest. The appointment of Pompey to this office is another important step towards empire. Never before had one man exercised dictatorial powers over almost all territory ruled by Rome. Hitherto a dictator had power only in Italy and a governor only in his own province. Many of the senators realized the seriousness of granting so much power to one man, but they were powerless to stay the tide of popular enthusiasm which voted the office to Pompey.

Pompey justified the trust imposed in him. In a whirlwind campaign of less than two months he swept the pirate fleets from the sea and cleaned out every pirate stronghold on the shores of the Mediterranean. Just at this time Mithridates of Pontus renewed the struggle with Rome. and the lieutenant of his former conqueror was sent to reconquer him. Pompey speedily crushed Mithridates and turned on into Armenia, whose king he humbled. For five years Pompey marched here and there in Asia Minor, receiving the submission of all the kings and remodelling the administrations of the provinces. He also created new provinces from the conquered kingdoms. At the end of this work he returned to Italy and returned to the Roman people the office intrusted to him. He was unquestionably

the Pirates

Position

the greatest Roman at that particular time. Had he been as great in politics as he was in war, he might have prevented the foolish quarrelling then going on in Rome. He had, however, become ambitious for higher honors. Soon after his return he formed a secret agreement with his old ally, Crassus, who had become immensely wealthy from his governmental contracts, and with a daring aristocrat named Julius Caesar. This agreement had no official recognition, yet it was, nevertheless, an attempt at tyranny by three men at the same time.



CICERO DENOUNCING CATILINE

A profligate nobleman, Catiline, organized a conspiracy to overthrow the government. In this plot he was seconded by the more reckless of the popular party. The conspiracy was detected and Catiline denounced in the senate by one of the consuls, a great orator named Cicero. As a result the leaders were executed. Cicero believed Caesar was a party to this plot and as a result a life-long hostility between these men arose.

Character of Caesar

41. The Rise of Julius Caesar. — Gaius Julius Caesar was a member of one of the oldest families of Rome. His aunt was the wife of Marius and his first wife was also of the Marian party, so he was popular with the democrats. He was a medium-sized man with a striking face and personality. His most noticeable traits were his ambition to influence

other men, his desire for fame, his unusual capacity for hard and exhaustive work, both physical and mental, his military foresight and daring. These characteristics were not at first apparent, for he spent his boyhood and early manhood in the idle sports and amidst the degrading associations of the majority of his class. When Sulla came into power Caesar was compelled to flee in disguise from Rome. After many romantic adventures he returned to Rome soon after Sulla's death and became an active worker in the popular party.

An ill-timed uprising of the discontented at Rome tempo- Reasons for rarily clouded Caesar's popularity, and he was forced to seek Formation of an alliance with Pompey, but lately returned from his virate successes in the East, to gain a share in that great general's renown. The senate was envious of Pompey's distinction and denied him new honors, so he was glad to secure an ally. Crassus was the third member of this triple alliance and added his immense fortune to the political sagacity of Caesar and the renown of Pompey, with immediate results. The Its Work bewildered senators found themselves unable to carry through any plan opposed by the three. Caesar was elected consul, Pompey's policy in the East was approved, and Crassus was given opportunities to augment his wealth. Cicero, the spokesmen of the conservative senators, was discredited and driven into exile. Thus secure at home. Caesar turned to further triumphs.

At the expiration of his consulship, he was elected governor Caesar's of most of Gaul for five years Here he drove back from the Campaigns in Rhine the Germans, who were attempting to cross into Gaul, made the rebellious Swiss acknowledge Roman sway, and twice invaded Britain. He established the northeastern boundary of the Roman dominion at the Rhine, thus adding all of modern France to Rome's possessions. At the conclusion of his first term he secured reappointment. During these years Cicero's term of banishment expired. turned to Rome and rallied around him the disheartened aristocrats, who now clearly saw the trend of affairs and who put aside their personal friendships to save Rome from the tyranny which would result if the general returned to

the Trium-

Rome for the purpose of seizing the reins of government. These senators were soon to receive a powerful ally.

Breach between Caesar and Pompey

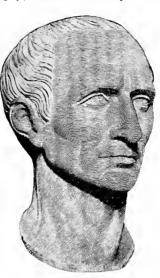
In the midst of his campaigns in the East, Crassus died. and at almost the same time Caesar's daughter, whom Pompey had married, died. There was no longer any bond of union between Caesar and Pompey. The senatorial party saw its opportunity. They made Pompey jealous of Caesar, whose more recent exploits in Gaul were making the fickle people forgetful of the former's great deeds against Mithridates. Caesar felt the breach growing un between himself and Pompey and tried unsuccessfully to justify himself in the eyes of the senate. When he heard that the senate was preparing to take active measures against him he took up his winter quarters at Ravenna, the principal town in Cisalpine Gaul, which is located on the Po River. not far from the boundary line of his province — the Rubicon River. At length the blow fell. The senate passed a decree ordering Caesar to resign his governorship of Gaul under penalty of being declared a traitor if he refused. Caesar knew that if he obeyed it would leave Pompey master of Rome. He naturally refused to resign his command unless Pompey would agree to do so also. Pompey remained singularly inactive at this time. Instead of collecting an army and taking active measures against Caesar, he relied more on the magic of his former fame.

Caesar, at the little town of Ravenna, now struck hard. It was against the law for a governor to enter Roman territory at the head of his army. Even Pompey had obeyed this law on his return from the East. Caesar crossed the Rubicon

^{1 &}quot;He had every reason to be indignant. All that had gone well with Pompey had gone ill for him. Together they had courted the crowd, corrupted the nation, opposed the senate — all to win glory, riches, and power. But Pompey had not been forced to mount the ladder of office by slow degrees. Thrice consul, his victories had made him the greatest general of his day; he had won the respect of the great without losing the admiration of the humble. Caesar with endless intrigues and difficulty and danger had climbed into office. He was the most despised and best hated man among the upper classes." (Ferrero.) Now the senatorial class sought to deprive him of the fruits of his hard work in his province.

and seized town after town on Roman soil. Pompey and the senate seemed paralyzed. The adherents of Caesar got the upper hand at Rome and Pompey retired to Greece to await Caesar. However, Caesar was unable to follow him for the time, owing to lack of transports. In the meantime Spain, sympathizing with Pompey, shut off her shipments

of grain to Rome. Spain was at this time the granary of Rome and without her aid the citizens of Rome would soon have starved.1 Caesar lost no time in leading his legions into Spain, where the forces of the sympathizers with Pompey were speedily defeated and the embargo on the grain trade was removed. This accomplished, Caesar returned to Rome and received the gratitude of the people. He was elected dictator and soon after consul. Now in a position to attack Pompey, he followed him into Thessalv. At the almost blood-



JULIUS CAESAR

less battle of Pharsalus, Pompey's troops refused to fight against Caesar, and Pompey fled from the field, a discouraged and beaten man. Caesar was master of the Roman republic.²

42. The Rule of Julius Caesar. — The servility of the

¹ We have only to imagine the effect on a large city like New York of the cutting off of all lines of communication and the stopping of incoming commerce in order to understand the seriousness of the crisis at Rome.

² Soon after this Pompey was murdered at the command of Ptolemy, king of Egypt, who hoped thereby to win the support of Caesar in a struggle for the throne.

Offices held by Caesar senate and assembly to Caesar was remarkable. A short time before he had been denounced as a demagogue, the leader of a motley rabble, a second Catiline. He now was elected dictator for a term of ten years (later for life) and titles of "Father of his Country" and Imperator, or general-in-chief for life, were conferred upon him. Already pontifex maximus or high priest, he was also elected censor and consul. He had all the powers of a king, yet he hesitated to take the last step and announce the end of the republic. He preferred to pose as its foremost citizen.

His Reforms

As soon as he had put down the final effort of the senatorial party, which was made in Africa and Spain shortly after he defeated Pompey, he turned his attention to the evils that were troubling Rome. Government corruption, wholesale seizure of government lands by private persons, oppression of the poor, slavery, unfair taxation were considered in turn. He distributed thousands of acres, confiscated from those who held them illegally, to worthy soldiers, and also borrowed from Gracchus the policy of establishing colonies in distant provinces to serve as homes for the poor. He also revived the policy of assimilation by the passage of a law incorporating Spain and Gaul within the Roman state. As censor he corrected some of the evils in the government and in the tax lists. The Julian Law concerning municipalities provided for a uniform system of city government throughout the empire and promoted freedom among the inhabitants. As pontifex maximus he reformed the calendar to make the year consist of 365 days instead of 355 days as before. He introduced a new gold coin, the aureus, and provided a just method of paying debts together with interest, in these ways aiding commerce.

Growth of Feeling against Caesar Many of his plans were cut short by his death: among them the drainage of the marshes, the enlargement of the port of Rome, the erection of large public buildings, and a campaign against the Parthians. He grew wearied and irritable. He had lived hard, and although only fifty-six years of age, he was growing very old. He began to distrust everyone and his friends whispered that he was growing

insane.1 His good judgment seemed to desert him. His enemies convinced many of his friends that they must free Rome of what they fancied was a great evil.

Caesar was accustomed to attend all important meetings, Death of partly to show the people that he meant to maintain the old customs of the republic, and partly to prevent any action hostile to his plans. One day in March (44 B.C.), as he entered the senate, a group of men surrounded him with petitions. While he was considering these, at a signal twenty daggers were buried in his body. "The tyrant was dead. but the tyranny still lived."

Iulius Caesar was one of the greatest men of all history. Estimate of While the lasting effects of his work are few, they are of the his Work utmost importance. Like some other men of history he died at a time most fortunate for his future fame. The outcome of his proposed Parthian campaign might have reversed history, for there were many strong men left at Rome. Few men have been so many sided. He was great as a soldier, a governor, a lawmaker, a judge, a moulder of public thought, and a historian. He was weak because of vanity, selfishness, and lack of self-control. Yet on the

43. Summary of the Change from Republic to Empire. -The growth of large fortunes resulting from foreign wars caused great discontent and suffering at Rome. A struggle to better the condition of the poor caused the formation of parties and an attempt upon the part of the subjects of Rome to win their freedom. In the resulting disorder it

whole the world is much better because such a man lived.

¹ Although he proposed wonderful laws which brought good to Rome he often acted foolishly. He became infatuated for a time with Cleopatra, the queen of Egypt, and erected a statue of her in a temple dedicated to Venus. His former friend, Brutus, a sincere if somewhat conceited descendant of a very illustrious Roman family, was convinced that Caesar desired to restore a monarchy. Cicero, who for a time had been less hostile to Caesar, perceived that Caesar had no real intention of preserving the republic. Caesar probably induced his lieutenant. Antony, to offer him the kingly crown at one of the religious festivals. He refused it three times, but the whole proceeding further exasperated Brutus and bis faction.

became possible for successful army leaders to control the government of Rome.

The government of the Roman republic, never a democracy. had been controlled at first by the nobles and later by the men of great wealth, who formed a new aristocratic class known as the senatorial party. The wealthy had to control the government in order to prevent the passage of laws which would make them contribute their just share to the expenses of the state. That this was unjust to the poor was evident to many high-minded men, some of whom sacrificed their lives in the vain attempt to change conditions. Affairs went from bad to worse until military heroes, posing as champions of the poor, overturned the mock republican constitution, substituting for it a military despotism. Civil war resulted in the establishment of a one-man government. controlled by Julius Caesar, who combined in his person all the offices of importance and was virtually the first emperor of the Roman empire.

THE GOVERNMENT OF ROME DURING THE REPUBLICAN PERIOD

ELEMENTS	No.	Composition	CHOICE	Powers 1	LIMITATIONS
Consuls	2	chosen annually	by centuries	War-chiefs and m leader in foreign	
Pretors	2	ditto		Judges	ditto
Ediles (Aediles)	4	ditto ditto	by tribes	Police and publi works board	c ditto
Dictato r	1	chosen by consusent of senate danger to Rome	ıl with con- in time of		Term not over six months
Tribunes	2	chosen annually (later addition were elected)			Must not eave Rome. Could not be re-elected
Censors	2	chosen for five-y	ear term	Power of deprivof their duty of the census of the	because of making up
The Sena	te	was member of Vacancies in the filled by the cen	the senate. senate were sors, who ap-	"The foremost poration of all no official found ent to bring for public measure senate's approvable the rement of Rome mocracy of the was a show	time." As l it expedi- orward any without the al, this body cal govern- c. The de-

The Assemblies

- (1) Comitia curiata. Very important in the regal period, but a mere shadow in the later republic period. Composed of the heads of the curias.
- (2) Comitia of the centuries. Composed of the wealthier and nobler citizens. Met to elect important officers. (See above.)
- (3) Comitia of the tribes. The law-making body, composed of the landholders of the country districts, together with all citizens of the city.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Were the Gracchi justified in disobeying the laws of Rome? At what time did the revolution begin? Make a statement for your note-books, summarizing the steps in the progress of the change from republic to empire. How were the gladiators trained? What would have been the result if Caesar had obeyed the command of the senate instead of crossing the Rubicon with his army? Show that the government as ruled over by Caesar was a compromise between the hero-worship of the masses and the conservatism of the aristocrats. Write in your notebooks a brief biographical sketch of Cicero. Compare Marius and Caesar; Sulla and Pompey. Why was Caesar the greatest man of his time?

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CHAPTER VI

THE ROMAN EMPIRE

44. The Empire a Settled Fact. — The murderers of The Second Caesar had counted on popular approval of their violent Triumvirate

deed; instead, they found it necessary to flee from Rome in order to save their lives. The furious soldiers of Caesar, under the leadership of his heir, Octavius,1 his close friend, Marc Antony, and his lieutenant, Lepidus, followed the conspirators into Greece as Caesar had followed Pompey years before. These three men had been appointed a triumvirate to restore the They defeated state. the conspirators at the battle of Philippi, and thus gained absolute control of the Roman world which they then divided between themselves.2

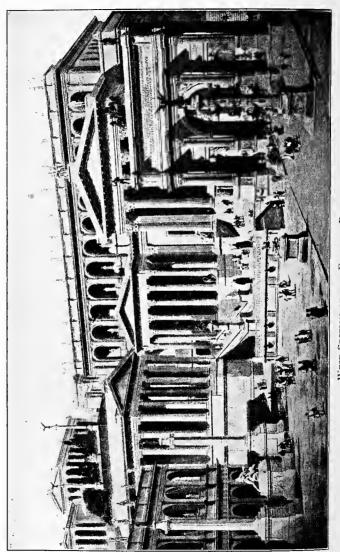
¹ Caesar, having no son to



OCTAVIUS
Augustus Caesar, the Illustrious.

succeed to his power, had formally adopted his grandnephew, Octavius, and had a law made that the latter should be his heir.

²Lepidus received Italy; Octavius took Sicily, Sardinia, and Africa; Antony was given Gaul.



West Section of the Forum-Restored

Octavius soon forced Lepidus to resign his honors, leaving the mastery in the hands of Antony and himself. In the rearrangement of lands Antony chose the wealthy East, while Octavius chose the West. After perfecting his plans Octavius brought about a breach between Antony and himself, and when war was begun between their forces Antony's fleet was beaten at the battle of Actium. Antony soon after committed suicide, leaving Octavius supreme. his return to Rome he received all the titles and honors which had been bestowed upon his illustrious uncle. The Roman world, weary of war and hopeless of a restoration of the republic, made no further struggle against the establishment of a monarchy. Octavius took the title of Augustus (the illustrious) 27 B.C. and ruled Rome according to the example set him by his uncle.

Cold in disposition, calculating, and selfish, Augustus is The Princione of the strangest men of history. He was insignificant pate in personal appearance and tricky in character, and yet his reign was one of the greatest importance to the empire. His caution in making decided changes in the government and the absence of strong rivals aided him greatly. The senate continued to rule in the city of Rome, yet it was strongly guided by the emperor in his role of princeps or first citizen. In the provinces the emperor was supreme as the representative in his person of the Roman people. arrangement whereby the senate and emperor seemingly had co-ordinate powers is sometimes spoken of as the dyarchy

¹ Antony chose the East because he wished to have control of the immensely wealthy empire of Egypt, which was then ruled over by the fascinating Cleopatra. (See p. 101, note.) Cleopatra was the sister of Ptolemy, the murderer of Pompey. Her cause had been espoused by Caesar and for a number of years she had ruled in Egypt under his protection. After his death she decided to captivate Antony, who seemed to her the probable successor of Caesar. He readily fell a victim to her charm of mind and beauty of person and remained inactive at her court while Octavius took measures to gain his inheritance. After the battle of Actium, Antony deserted his fleet and returned to Egypt. where shortly afterward he committed suicide. Cleopatra, unwilling to grace the triumph of Octavius, also died by her own hand.



EAST SECTION OF THE FORUM-RESTORED

(dual rule) or as the principate. The history of the first three centuries of the empire is a story of alternating principates and military despotisms.



RUINS OF THE CLAUDIA

An aqueduct completed by the Emperor Claudius. These arches extending originally more than seven miles across the plain, carried the pure water of the hills to the residents of Rome. The structure was nearly a hundred feet high.

Augustus organized the government of Rome without Policy of arousing the jealousy of the senate. He divided up the Augustus duties of administration between different departments, renewed the work of colonization, encouraged manufacturing and commerce, took a census of the empire for the purpose of aiding his tax collectors, and built many public roads and other public works. During his reign the Latin language received its highest state of development, and as a result the period is named, in his honor, the Augustan age of Latin. The poet Vergil wrote the great Latin epic poem of the Aeneid in his honor. The empire gained no important territory to the north during this reign, for while attempting the conquest of the lands of the Germans between the Rhine and Elbe rivers, the German hero

Arminius, or Herman the Great, defeated the Roman legions under the command of Varus. Augustus was content thereafter with the Rhine for his northern boundary. In the southeastern part of Europe, he was more successful, for three important provinces between the Alps and the Danube River were added to the empire. After the death of Cleopatra, he annexed Egypt to the empire.

Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, 45. Summary of the Political History of the Early Empire.

— His immediate successors were hated by the nobles be-



Roman Coins

A. Nero Caesar Augustus.

B. Trajan.

cause they showed favor to the provincials and commoners. As the only historian of this period was in sympathy with the nobles we have no fair treatment of their reigns. Doubtless each was less forbidding, less cruel, and less vicious than he has usually been painted. During the reign of Tiberius the crucifixion of Christ occurred. Claudius attempted the conquest of southern Britain.

Nero, the stepson of Claudius, came to the throne when a boy. He was of a happy disposition, and had studied under Seneca, a teacher of philosophy, some of whose writings impress us with respect for his high ideals. As Nero entered young manhood he fell under bad influences. Suspecting his old friend Seneca of plotting against him, he had him executed. With all restraint removed, he thereafter plunged into all sorts of foolish and harmful pursuits,

Nero

even appearing in the arena as a gladiator. During his reign a terrible fire swept through Rome, destroying a large part of the city. It was whispered that the emperor had himself caused the fire in order to amuse himself by watching the grand though terrifying spectacle. Perhaps he wished to get rid of the narrow, dirty streets and low huts of the Rome of his day, and to erect beautiful buildings in their places. However, Nero put the blame on the First Persecu-Christians, and charging them with a conspiracy, had them torn to pieces by savage beasts, or covered with tar and A.D. 64 set to burn as living torches to light his gardens. It is not surprising that after a few years of tyranny the people rose against him and he fell by his own hand.

tion of the Christians

After a brief interval of military despotism one strong The Flavian general, Vespasian, was able to establish his family, the Emperors Flavian, in the principate. Titus, his older son, besieged the city of Jerusalem and punished it for the rebellion of the Jews by destroying the famous temple, carrying back the sacred vessels to Rome. During the reign of Titus. Mount Vesuvius destroyed under a shower of ashes and lava the beautiful cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum. These are being excavated and may be visited by the traveller to Naples in Italy. He may see the ruined walls of the first stories of the buildings, the paved streets, showing the wheel-tracks of long-since crumbled chariots, or may step aside into the market-place or shattered amphitheatre, no longer humming with life. The third Flavian emperor, Domitian, was hated by the nobles as bitterly as was Tiberius. He completed the conquest of Britain and persecuted the Christians for the second time.

At last the nobles of the senate murdered Domitian and Traian and chose a Spanish senator, Nerva, as their emperor. His Hadrian adopted son and successor, Trajan, pushed the boundaries of the empire across the Danube, adding the province of Dacia, and extended his dominions in the East to the Euphrates. The third persecution of the Christians took place during his reign. (See p. 116.) Trajan's famous kinsman, Hadrian, caused to be constructed the frontier wall

The Anto-

in Britain that bears his name. (See p. 175.) His successors, the two Antonine emperors, were men of blameless character and high ideals who greatly strengthened the government of Rome. One of the sayings of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus expresses the noble philosophy of their reigns. "The best way to avenge thyself is not to become like him who did thee wrong." After the murder of the



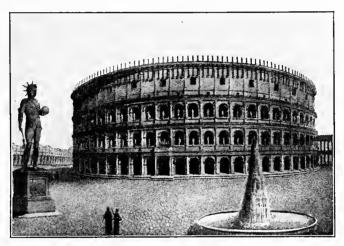
A STREET IN POMPEH AS IT APPEARS TODAY

Note the paved roadway, the sidewalks and curbing, the stepping stones at the street corner (in the background), the city block arrangement and brick construction of the houses, the square watering basin in the foreground.

infamous son of Marcus Aurelius, Roman history becomes for the most part a dreary record of military despotisms in which the imperial title was often put up at auction by the pretorian guard, the picked bodyguard of the emperors. Some of these military adventurers, who are known as the barrack emperors, were men of infamous character, but who possessed sufficient wealth to buy the army's support. During the reign of Caracalla, the wisest of these rulers, the policy of universal citizenship within the empire, for which so

The Barrack Emperors many great men had given up their lives, finally triumphed. Every freeman in the empire was granted citizenship.

46. Social Conditions during the Early Empire. - The great wealth of a few prominent families of Rome, together with slavery, tended to degrade the national character during the early empire. The idle freeman demanded amusement and refreshment. The Greek theatre was brought over,



RESTORATION OF THE COLOSSEUM

This is probably the way it appeared in the days of the Empire. Today it is in ruins.

with its comedies, and pantomimes were frequently presented, because the Roman wanted to be amused, not instructed, by his drama. Many attended the races at the Circus Maximus, a huge stadium or athletic park built between two of the Roman hills, tier upon tier of seats rising on either side to accommodate the two hundred thousand spectators who sometimes crowded them.

Not far from the forum or principal public square of Rome, The Colosthe Flavian emperors built the famous structure known as the Colosseum, a huge, elliptical pile of masonry in which were

held gladiatorial combats and other public spectacles. Around the sides were tiers of seats rising over one hundred feet in the air, which accommodated eighty thousand spectators, who were protected from the sun by awnings. The central part of the amphitheatre was open to the sky, and underneath the floor upon which the gladiators fought were corridors and cells in which were kept the wild beasts used in the battles between men and animals. Although used for centuries as

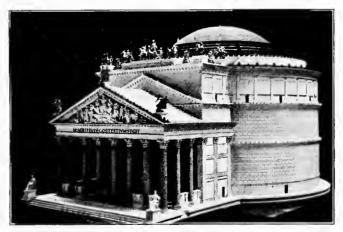


ON THE APPIAN WAY IN THE DAYS OF ROMAN MAGNIFICENCE

a stone quarry for the palaces of the medieval Roman lords, it is still the most impressive ruin in the Eternal City.

The Gladiatorial Contests The gladiatorial contests were spectacular dramas in which the actors fought bloody duels or reproduced famous battles. The gladiators were trained fighters. Many of them were as famous in their day as are the pugilists of present times.

The luxurious living of the wealthier Romans caused many evils in Roman society. As the cost of living increased the Romans did not scruple to expose their infants to die in order to escape the expense of a family. Divorce became very common and happy family life a rarity. As the principate changed into a military tyranny, and as the Romans saw the imperial title openly purchased by undeserving men, public honesty became almost unheard of. While morals declined, the best in literature and art also decayed. The Romans lost the power to create new ideas. But there was working within the empire a force so powerful that it was later able to revolutionize conditions.

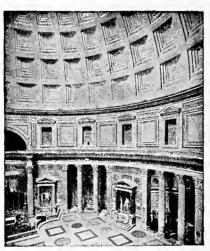


THE PANTHEON
From model in the Metropolitan Museum, New York.

The Roman government at first tolerated all religions. There still stands in Rome a beautiful building called the Pantheon, which was erected during the reign of Augustus. "It is a circular structure one hundred and thirty-two feet in diameter and of the same height, surmounted by a majestic dome that originally flashed with tiles of bronze. The interior is flooded with light from an aperture in the dome. The inside walls were formed of splendid columns of yellow marble, supporting noble arches, upon which rested more pillars and another row of

The Persecution of the Christians

arches up to the base of the dome. Under the arches in pillared recesses stood the statues of the gods of all religions; for this grand temple was symbolic of the grander toleration and



INTERIOR OF THE PANTHEON

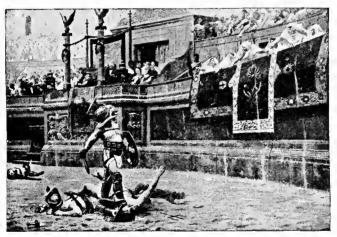
unity of the Roman world." (West, "Ancient World.") Vet toward the Christians the Roman government showed hostility. The reasons for this attitude are not hard to find. Secret meetings were suspicious in the eyes of the govern-Tiberius had ment. officers, called delators, whose duty was to spy upon such meetings or upon public men and to bring accusations of treason against them. The Christians per-

sisted in holding secret meetings, and thus were suspected of treason.1

¹ That the government was puzzled how to proceed against them is shown by the following letter written by Pliny, the governor of the province of Bithynia, asking Trajan for instructions. "I have never taken part in the trial of Christians, therefore I do not know for what crime nor to what extent it is the custom to punish or investigate. Therefore I have followed this custom in regard to those charged with being Christians." He goes on to say that he was gentle to those who would recant, but those who would not do so he had no option but to put to death. In consequence the new religion spread so rapidly that it became a serious problem to him, especially so as, after making inquiries, he found that the Christians had no beliefs dangerous to the empire. Trajan laid down the following rules for the treatment of Christians: "They ought not to be sought out; but if they are brought to trial and convicted, they ought to be punished, provided that he who denies that he is a Christian, and proves this by making prayers to our gods, shall secure pardon on repentance."

A second reason for the persecution of the Christians was because they felt that in a sense they were better than the average Roman of their day. They would not mix with them in social gatherings because the Romans offered up libations to the heathen gods. They would not visit the circus nor attend the gladiatorial games, for these things were "of the world and they were not of the world."

From a religious standpoint the Roman could not understand the mental position of the Christians. The Roman



POLLICE VERSO

The victorious gladiator turns to the spectators to learn if he shall kill the vanquished—the fatal signal is given by pointing downward with the thumbs.

was ready to accept any new divinity. Were a crazy man to arise in the streets of Rome and proclaim a new religion there would be plenty of men who would gladly build altars to the new god. The Christian, however, would neither accept the gods of the Romans, nor permit the Roman to worship his god unless he would give up his other gods. The Roman government persecuted the Christians because politically, socially, and from the standpoint of religion they

were an alien people. Yet, notwithstanding the terrible persecutions, Christianity spread rapidly throughout the Roman empire of the West.

47. The Reorganized Empire. — After the military misrule Government of the third century a soldier of peasant origin succeeded to of the Rethe imperial title. He detected two elements of weakness Empire in the government — first, the lack of any law of succession, a defect which had made the imperial power the plaything of successful generals: second, there was insufficient system in the administration—the emperor had no suitable officials on whom to rely for the faithful governing of the city of Rome while he was campaigning on the frontier. To remedy these defects he reorganized the entire imperial system. Instead of one emperor there were to be two of equal authority. Each of these should select a man to fill the office of Caesar (a title equivalent to vice-emperor). This system of partnership emperors secured a peaceful succession to the throne and better means to combat attempts at rebellion. Diocletian, the organizer of this system, divided the empire into four parts, each under the rule of one of the emperors or Caesars. These four districts were further divided and redivided into dioceses and provinces. He also ceased to call upon the senate for advice, so that the principate or dyarchy established by Augustus came to an end. The absolute character of the new government revealed itself in greater pomp and display at court.

During his reign one of the Caesars ordered a persecution Last Perseof the Christians, which for a decade caused great suffering. The Christians were too numerous, and after ten years of oppressive measures, such as the destruction of Christian churches and the execution of members of the faith, the government saw the uselessness of continuing this policy. In 311 A.D. a decree tolerated the practice of the Christian religion, and thereafter the growth of the church was exceedingly rapid.

In 325 A.D. the first general council of the church met at Nicene Creed the call of the Emperor Constantine at Nicea in Asia Minor. It was held to decide which set of religious teachings were to

organized

cution of the Christians

be considered the standard doctrines of the church. The two leading men in this council were Athanasius and Arius, both Alexandrian priests, who had come to think quite differently concerning the founder of the Christian religion. Arius argued that Christ was not equal to God, but Athanasius had a majority of the delegates, and the council decided

(2) Public Works

Elements of

(1) Govern-

Strength

ment

Arch of Constantine
Showing the Colosseum in the background.

that Arius was wrong. Accordingly, the assembly drew up a statement of their belief which is known as the Nicene creed. The Arian belief was declared to be heresy and orthodox believers were forbidden to accept it.¹

One source of strength in the later empire was the carefully organized administrative system. By means of his subordinates throughout the empire, the emperor was able to keep in close touch with the needs and wishes of remote provinces and to act ac-The great cordingly. public works of the empire, such as the wonderful highways which connected Rome with

¹ The medieval church differed from the church of the first three centuries, not only by its persecution of those who disagreed with it, but also by the adoption of many of the ceremonies, feast-days, and other customs formerly used by the pagan religions. In the primitive church the organization was very simple. Whenever groups of people met for worship, one of their number was chosen to lead them in the service. He was called elder (Greek, presbyter). The word "presbyter"

every part of her empire, the temples and triumphal arches.¹ the aqueducts for carrying water into the principal cities. the excellent fortifications which protected vulnerable places along the frontier, — all these gave strength to the empire. The merchants who carried their wares over these roads (3) Commerce made the inhabitants of one part of the empire feel that they had things in common with the people of other provinces. This feeling of common interest was also a bond of union. Travellers along the roads were assured of justice in cases of (4) Roman difference of opinion or of oppression by the excellent courts Law and laws of the empire. It will be remembered that the apostle Paul rejoiced in the fact of his Roman citizenship and that he appealed from the procedure of the Syrian courts to the square dealing of Rome.2 Education is a failure if (5) Education it does not promote true patriotism. Roman education was another source of strength. The educational system was both highly organized and well regarded, and there were both higher and lower institutions of learning. At Rome.

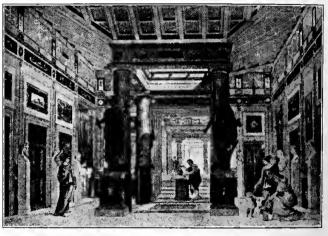
gradually became shortened into the more familiar word "priest." The distinction between pastor (shepherd) and laity (sheep) was at first scarcely distinguishable. The medieval church, on the other hand. adopted the administrative organization of the partnership emperors, and thereafter the line between clergy and laity became sharply defined. Those priests who officiated in important churches were looked up to by the other priests of the diocese in which they lived, and were called upon to act as overseers (Greek, episcopus) over them. The early English writers translated this word by sound into their language as bishop. The bishops of the more important regions were called archbishops, or metropolitans, because they were usually bishops of the larger cities. We shall have occasion to study how certain metropolitans gained a supremacy over all the other clergy and assumed the titles of Pope and Patriarch.

¹ The Romans excelled in architecture and created a highly decorated form of arch known as the triumphal arch. Among the better known arches erected by the emperors to commemorate their most famous victories are those of Trajan and Constantine. The former stands in Trajan's Forum, the latter within a stone's throw of the Colosseum. Both arches are richly sculptured and bear Latin inscriptions honoring

their imperial builders.

² Acts xxv, the entire chapter, or more especially verses 10, 11,

as today at Washington or Albany, the study of law was aided by the opportunities given the student to observe the workings of the machinery of government. At Athens students had the inspiration of the beautiful works of art and of literature left by the Greeks. The successors of Alexander had built up a great scientific school at Alexandria in which medicine, astronomy, and mathematics were studied. In every large town the imperial government maintained grammar schools for the children of the better classes, in which they received



INTERIOR OF A ROMAN HOUSE

about the equivalent of a high school education. Elementary instruction was given everywhere to all classes. The Roman empire retained most of its strength for five centuries, for the forces tending to unite it were stronger during that period than the forces tending to break it up. The elements of strength were the splendidly organized government, the magnificent system of public works, the province-uniting commerce, the just legal code, and the opportunities for education.

Yet with all these forces working to hold the empire to-

gether, other forces were tearing it apart. Economic distress, slavery, and profound changes in the character of the Roman people eventually broke the empire up into a number of smaller states and ushered in an epoch of general decline commonly spoken of as "The Dark Ages."

ress, Forces tending to Destroy the Empire

As the government became more highly organized it became more and more expensive to run it. The court became extravagant, while the salary list of public officials

(1) Heavy Taxation



CARCASSONNE

City on the Aude in southern France. Fortified by the Visigoths, probably on foundations of Roman walls.

constantly increased; accordingly it was necessary to increase the amount of money collected by taxation. As a result the cost of living became so great that thousands of men were ruined financially and became practically slaves to their creditors. Because of the cost of living, no man in moderate circumstances could afford to rear large families of children. Hence the population of the empire declined

(2) Excessive Cost of Living

(3) Decline in Population to such an extent that there were not enough freemen in the empire to fill out the legions of the army or even to carry on absolutely necessary farm work. This want was supplied

(4) Introduction of Foreigners

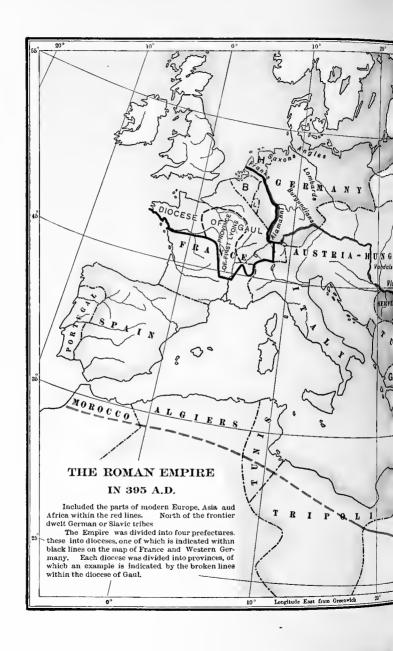
(5) Slavery

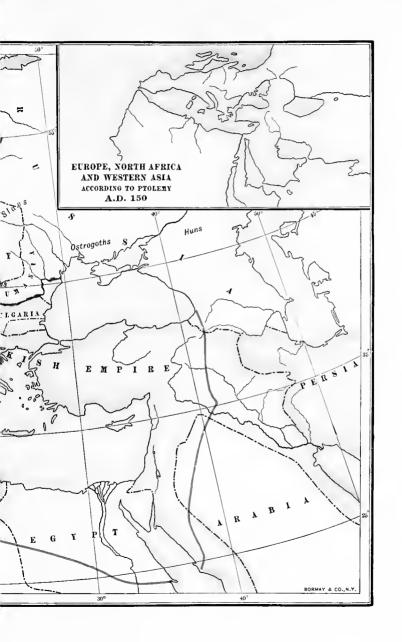
by enlisting foreigners in the Roman legions, and by bringing a large number of slaves into the empire to work on the farms or in the small shops left idle by the disappearing Roman workmen. Whenever and wherever slavery has been tried. it has proved to be destructive to society. It brings honest labor into disrepute, whereas each man and woman should learn the vital truth that all kinds of toil are honorable and that the laborer is worthy of one's highest respect. Slavery tends to limit the kinds of industry, since slave labor is not profitable in all trades. Furthermore a population made up to a large extent of foreign-born soldiers and slaves is not the best stuff out of which to build a patriotic people. changed character of the population, owing to high cost of living caused by the excessive taxation, from a native-born and free people to an alien and servile stock, disrupted the Roman empire. 48. The Break-up of the Empire. — Constantine removed

Founding of Constantinople

Invasion of the Visigoths his capital from Rome to Byzantium, a city on the Bosphorus which he renamed after himself. Constantinople was better situated to control the commerce of the world than Rome: furthermore it was entirely free from the traditions of republican simplicity that hovered over the city on the seven hills. Soon after his death the disintegration of the empire became apparent. A German tribe called the Visigoths (West Goths) were driven into the empire by the raids of the Huns, a terrible race of Mongolian horsemen who began at this time to harass the empire. They were at first disposed to be friendly to the Roman government, but when they were treated unfairly they took up arms and inflicted a crushing defeat on the empire at the battle of Adrianople (378 A.D.), in which the Emperor Valens was killed. His successor managed to remain on fairly peaceful terms with the Goths. After his death a young chieftain of the Goths, named Alaric, led his people into Italy and captured and sacked the city of Rome (410 A.D.). This was the first time Rome had been









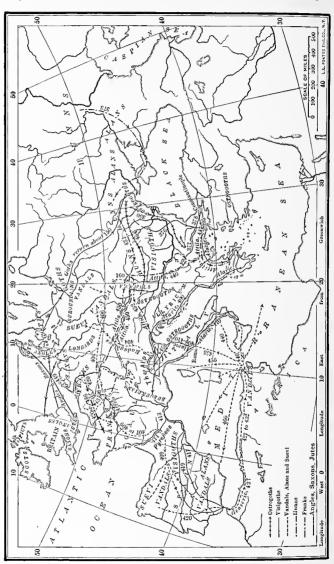
menaced by a foreign army since the days of Hannibal. Although Alaric died suddenly during a campaign in southern Italy, his people were enabled to establish a permanent home within the empire. They chose the Spanish peninsula and drove into Africa another German tribe, who thereafter established themselves on the site of ancient Carthage. This tribe, the Vandals, attacked and ravaged Rome in such The Vandals a frightful manner that their name has ever since been a term of reproach (455 A.D.).



TOMB OF THEODORIC AT RAVENNA

This was constructed during his reign and used during the Middle Ages as the choir of a church. The roof is a single block of Istrian marble, 33 feet in diameter, weighing 300 tons.

It is fortunate for our civilization that these Germans were able to build up some degree of power in the West by 451 A.D.; for they were then called upon by the Roman empire to check the advancing horde of Huns, who now threatened to The Huns destroy civilization. Hideous in personal appearance, vile in their habits, demons in battle, the Huns cared nothing



THE MAIN MIGRATIONS OF THE GERMANIC TRIBES, 150-600 A.D.

at all for the civilization of the empire, but spent their lives in the saddle and in battle. Such was the people that the combined Gothic and Roman armies hurled back at the battle of Chalons. Attila, the "Scourge of God," king of Chalons the Huns, turned aside into Italy and appeared before the city of Rome: but pestilence smote his camp and he was forced to retreat into Germany with the Roman forces hot in pursuit. Shortly after his death his forces suffered another terrible defeat and withdrew from Europe forever.

In the meantime Britain and other provinces had been The So-called conquered by various Germanic tribes. At last a boy Fall of Rome emperor, who singularly enough bore the names of the city's founder and of the first emperor, Romulus Augustulus. was deposed by Odoaker, a German army officer, and the emblems of his authority were sent to his co-emperor at Constantinople (476 A.D.). Some have thought that this act constituted the ending of the Roman empire in the West. but better authority holds that it was but one of a series of dramatic events connected with the change from a Roman to a German control of western Europe.

Not altogether pleased with the administration of Odoaker, whom he had appointed viceroy of Italy with the title of patrician, the emperor appointed a young East Goth named Theodoric to succeed him. Theodoric led his people into Italy, and after killing Odoaker, established another Germanic kingdom on Roman soil (403 A.D.). Theodoric ruled his Roman and Gothic subjects justly, and by a series of royal marriages with the Visigoths and other German tribes, established friendly relations throughout western Europe. In his relations with the church Theodoric was not as happy. because he and his people were Arian Christians (see p. 120). His daughter was unable to hold the throne against other claimants, and Justinian, the Roman emperor, intervened. After twenty years of war that followed, the East Gothic kingdom in Italy was destroyed and the Gothic race in Italy practically exterminated.

The Ostro-Gothic Kingdom in Italy

49. The Byzantine Empire. - From this time the Roman Work of Jusempire, with its capital at Constantinople, is commonly tinian

spoken of as the Byzantine empire. Justinian was one of the greatest of the rulers of this empire. His great achievements were in constructive rather than in destructive works. During his reign silkworms were brought from the East and the manufacture of silk was begun by the Greco-Romans. Among the many public buildings constructed during his reign is the church dedicated to the Divine Wisdom (St. Sophia), now used as a Mohammedan mosque. The laws of the empire were codified by his lawyers at his order, in the form upon which almost all medieval law was based.



JUSTINIAN
Dictating his law codes to his lawyers.

The Byzantine Empire in the Middle Ages Although the successors of Justinian were by no means as able as he, yet the Byzantine empire withstood all attacks for centuries after Roman dominion had entirely ceased in the West. The contrast between the state of civilization in Constantinople with that of western Europe at the same time is marked. This Byzantine civilization performed useful services for the rest of Europe. First, it protected against Mohammedan invasions until the West was strong enough to resist them; second, it kept commerce alive until the Italian cities had become wealthy and powerful enough to

engage in trade; third, it preserved the learning and culture of the Greco-Romans for the use of later generations; and fourth, it Christianized and civilized the rest of eastern Europe. It was less than fifty years before the discovery of America that the Turks were able to capture the city of Constantinople and put an end to this wonderful empire of the East.¹



SAINT SOPHIA

At Constantinople, erected by Justinian in 538 as a church, converted by the Turks into a mosque.

1 "Travellers from western Europe were astonished to find such an enormous city, such wealth and such refinement. In the West learning was confined to the clergy; safety in travelling could be secured only by an armed force; and the homes of the most powerful nobles were rough castles, destitute of comfort and built mainly for defence. The kings of France and Germany were obliged to travel from one to another of their farms in order to secure the food necessary for their meals. Loathsome skin diseases were common, and there were no skilful doctors; pestilences and famines swept over the population from time to time. In Constantinople the travellers found lighted and paved streets, extensive public parks, hospitals, and homes for orphans. Order was maintained by a well-organized police force; theatres and circuses were maintained for

50. A Summary of the History of the Roman Empire. -In this survey of the Roman empire three things especially are to be fixed in the mind. The first is the importance of Roman organization and law. The second is the story of the growth and influence of the Christian church. The third is the remarkable way in which the Roman institutions were adopted by the barbarous Germans. The Romans so organized this world empire that each part felt itself as truly Roman as Rome herself, subject to all Roman laws and speaking a common language, the Latin. The Christian church quietly but surely grew into the form of the organization of the empire, and when the civil authorities became unable to administer Roman law, the church was ready and able to carry on the necessary governmental functions, and it thus saved for us the culture both of Greece and Rome, which would otherwise have been destroyed by the barbarians. Coming under the influence of the church, the Germans learned to appreciate the benefits of much of the older civilization, which they modified and then adopted.

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

(The following studies are based on Tucker's *Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul*, published by Macmillan. This is the best of the recent books dealing with the social life of the empire. Page references are given.)

Describe travel within the empire upon Roman roads, 16-25. Describe the office of emperor under the principate, 49-56. Draw a map of the Roman Forum and its neighborhood and locate the Rostra, the temple of Julius, the arch of Titus, the palaces of the Caesars, the arch of Constantine, and the Colosseum, 102-129. Describe the appearance, construction, lighting of Roman streets, 130-135, the water supply of

the amusement of the populace. There were flourishing schools in which the scholars pursued not merely the elementary subjects taught in the West, but also those pertaining to law, medicine, and science. The nobles lived in magnificent buildings which far surpassed the palaces of the Western monarchs. The artisans were comfortably housed, and worked together in great factories, producing rich stuffs which were so rare and so highly prized in the West." (Munro, A History of the Middle Ages.)

Rome, 135-137. Describe the materials used for the construction of Roman houses, 137-138. Compare a Roman city block with those of our large cities, 139-142. Describe the town-house of the Roman, 143-168. Describe the social day of a Roman aristocrat: morning, 193-220; afternoon and dinner, 221-237. Describe the occupations of the middle and lower classes, 244-259. Describe the Roman theatre and its amusements, 263-273. Describe the Circus Maximus and the events which were held there, 273-280. Describe the amphitheatre and the spectacles there produced, 280-288. Describe Roman education, 319-335, the beginnings of Christianity, 381-387.

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Shepherd, Historical Atlas: Plan of Rome, pp. 22-23; Plan of the Forum, p. 24; Territorial Expansion of Rome, pp. 34-35; Map of the European Provinces of the Empire, pp. 38-39; Roman Empire about 395 A.D., pp. 42-43; Germanic Migrations and Conquests, p. 45; The Roman and Hunnic Empires about 450 A.D., p. 48; The Germanic Kingdoms and the East Roman Empire in 486 A.D., pp. 50-51; in 526-600 A.D., p. 52.

CHAPTER VII

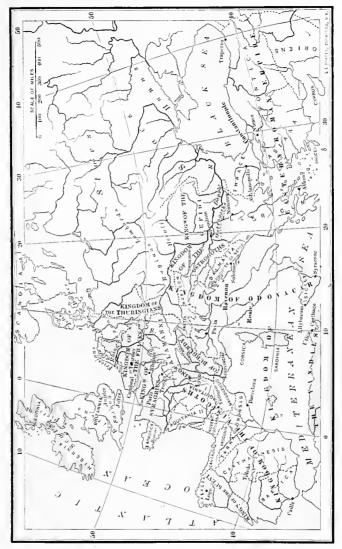
THE GERMAN KINGDOMS AND THE PAPACY

The Lombard Conquest of Italy and its Effects

51. The Rise of the Papacy. - Although Justinian was chiefly a constructive statesman, his generals were successful in restoring to the control of the emperor the lands of the Ostrogoths in Italy and of the Vandals in Africa. renewed control of Italy lasted only a short time, for another German tribe invaded the peninsula and gained the mastery. The newcomers, the Lombards, lacked a strong sense of nationality, and in consequence were unable to establish a united kingdom over the whole peninsula. Many small dukedoms grew up, and during the period of misrule that followed, the bishop of Rome gained greater temporal power. The Lombard conquest was important because it divided Italy into a number of small states; second, because it laid the foundations for the temporal rule of the pope. The three zones into which Italy was thenceforth divided were as follows: the northern, the valley of the Po, called Lombardy; the central, its capital at Rome, associated in men's minds with the bishop of that city; the southern, dominated by the cities of Beneventum and Naples.

Reasons for the Growth of the Papal Power

During the troubled times of Lombard misrule the officials of the Roman church, particularly the bishop of Rome, were forced to accept many responsibilities of government. This was due to a number of circumstances. The civil authorities, representatives of a distant emperor at Constantinople, had little interest in the people of Italy and usually regarded them as lawful plunder. The church officers sympathized with their flocks, hence the people came more often to them for advice and leadership than to the government officials. This was natural because, with scarcely an exception, the officers of the church were exceedingly able men, none more justly respected than the bishops of Rome.



EUROPE IN THE HANDS OF THE GERMANIC TRIBES



There were several bishops throughout the empire, whose responsibilities were great, and whose abilities were even greater. The bishop, or patriarch, of Constantinople and the bishop of Alexandria ruled great spiritual parishes, but the bishop of Rome was recognized as the head of bishops, the pope (from the Italian word for "father") of all the church. Authorities give us the following reasons for the universal recognition of the claims of the pope to supremacy: the importance of the imperial city greatly increased the honor of the bishop of that city; the superior abilities of the Roman bishops won the respect of the other bishops; the government of the empire, by several laws bearing on the subject, established and recognized the Roman bishop as head of the church; implicit confidence was given to the literal interpretation of a passage in the Bible in which Peter, whom Roman tradition made the first bishop of Rome, was declared to be the head of the church.1 All other Roman bishops received, in what is known as the apostolic succession, the powers possessed by the first bishop.

While Italy had been ravaged by one German tribe after another the eastern emperors still kept up the fiction of rule over the peninsula, and were for a long time recognized as supreme by the popes. The Emperor Leo the Iconoclast Breach be-(from the Greek, meaning "image-smasher"), so called because of his policy, did not approve of the use of images of saints in the churches and issued a decree forbidding their use and ordering the destruction of all images then standing in the churches. The pope considered the use of images perfectly legitimate and refused to carry out the decree of destruction in the region under his control. In consequence a quarrel between the emperor and the pope led to the separation of the eastern part of the Catholic Church from that in the West. The West acknowledged the supremacy of the pope; the East looked up to the patriarch of Constantinople, the emperor's city.² This schism in the church made the pope

Reasons why the Roman Bishop became the Head of the Church

(1) Transferred Importance of Rome itself (2) Character of Early Popes (3) Government Recognition (4) Authority of the Bible

tween the Emperor and the Pope

Origin of the Greek Catholic Church

¹ Matthew xvi. 13-20.

² The modern Greek Catholic Church, the successor of the Eastern church, differs in doctrine, form of worship, and organization from the

Change in dating Time

of Rome much stronger and was an additional reason for the supremacy of the papacy in the West. A further result of this quarrel was the beginning of the present method of reckoning time; i.e., from the birth of Christ. Before the pope and emperor disagreed, the papal laws were dated according to the years of the reign of the ruling emperor. Seven hundred eighty-five years after the birth of Christ, Pope Hadrian dated a papal decree 781 A.D. (Anno Domini).1

The Ascetic Life

52. The Rise of Monasticism. — In all ages and among all peoples there have been men and women who desire to live a life apart from the everyday affairs of the world. People call such persons hermits or ascetics and have attributed to them supernatural and prophetic powers. Asceticism, the desire to live a life in which the bodily desires are gratified only so far as necessary to support life, is even today not rare. We all know people who practise self-denial in various ways, and there is no doubt that self-denial is helpful in building up self-control. Among many races there have been individuals and groups of persons who believe that the practice of extreme self-denial, even to the extent of inflicting pain upon the body, is an act of worship acceptable to God. Closely related to this idea is that of the sacrifice of living creatures upon the altars of the gods, which played such an important part in the religion of the ancient peoples.

Reasons for adopting a Monastic Life

(1) Religious Fervor (2) Unsettled State of Soci-(3) Physical

Weakness

It is not strange that men and women became monks and nuns. In the middle ages they were induced to enter the monastic life for several reasons: religious fervor urged them to devote their lives to the service of God, and this was thought to mean that they must separate themselves from everything pertaining to everyday life; the unsettled condition of society rendered family life unhappy and the rearing of a family uncertain, hence many men and women were

Roman Catholic Church. This separation of the churches began at the time of the iconoclastic dispute, and has since greatly widened.

1 It will be seen that the pope made an error of several years, and that according to this method of reckoning time Christ was born in the year 4 B.C.

glad to take the vows never to marry, required on entering a monastic order; the bitter struggle for a livelihood outside of the monasteries forced behind their protecting walls many persons who were physically unable to cope with outside conditions, yet who were well adapted for the scholarly life of these orders

During the first three centuries of the Christian era, at The Benedicvarious places in the empire, groups of devout persons of ascetic tendencies associated together for the sake of protection in small villages rudely constructed, but often fortified. As they had many things in common they found it necessary to have a definite agreement to govern them in their relations to each other. The most important of these agreements is The Benedicthe set of regulations drawn up for the monastery of Monte Cassino by its abbot or head about 530 A.D. These regulations, called in honor of their framer the Benedictine rule, were adopted by the majority of the monasteries of western Europe, and the monks who obeyed them were called Benedictine monks. By this rule the monks bound themselves to obedience, silence, humility, poverty, chastity, and service.

tine Monks

tine Rule

Among the most important of all of these vows in its effects Occupations on European civilization was that of service. The monks were required to labor in the fields, thus teaching the more ignorant peasants how to cultivate the best crops, and also setting them an example of honest toil at a time when almost all manual labor was performed by slaves and therefore regarded as degrading for freemen, as it was in the South before the Civil War. Those whose physique would not permit hard physical work copied laboriously for several hours each day in the scriptorium or writing room of the monastery. As all books had to be made by hand, the work of getting out a book was an extremely slow process. Had it not been for these patient workers, much of the literature of ancient times would have been lost. Quaint writers were some of these old monks, and many books have come down to us, beautiful in lettering and gorgeous with colored illuminations, as the pictures and colored initial letters are called.

of the Monks

Other monks gathered around them classes of young men and in this manner kept the germs of education alive through a period of great ignorance and violence. When travel was dangerous and accommodations for the traveller few, the monasteries served as hotels and hospitals for the weary or injured wayfarers. Indeed the two words, "hotel" and "hospital," are of common origin, as is shown in the word "hospitality." The monasteries thus served to promote commerce by furnishing merchants and traders with places of refuge and refreshment. The greatest work of the monks was that of mission work. It is to Roman Catholic monks of western Europe that credit must be given for Christianizing and then civilizing the German tribes, even as due praise must be awarded to the Greek Catholic Church for the civilizing of the Slavic race of Russia and the rest of eastern Europe.

Importance of the Work of the Monks

Clovis

The contributions of the monastic orders to literature, education, industry, commerce, religion, and general culture are of utmost importance.

53. The Frankish Kingdom. — While Theodoric the East Goth was winning Italy for his kingdom, Clovis, king of the Franks, wrested all northwestern France from the Roman empire. The Franks had in earlier times occupied the country of modern Holland. Clovis forced the Visigoths to retreat from the lands between the Loire and the Garonne. and defeated another German tribe, the Alemanni, in a battle near Strasburg. Other rival Frankish chieftains were either murdered or forced to acknowledge his supremacy. He died in 511 A.D., feared by his enemies and acknowledged king of that part of the empire. Strangely enough he appears in the annals of the early monkish chroniclers as the saintliest of kings, although a man of violent life; yet it must be remembered that he was liberal to the church. Probably the good bishop, Gregory of Tours, seeing the many good characteristics of the man, chose to be blind to the too apparent evil traits of his character. The chief importance of the work of Clovis is that he founded the first permanent German state on the soil of the old empire, the Franks having been the ruling race in that region ever since, although

the form of government and the dynasty of rulers have frequently changed.

The work of extending Frankish rule went on during The "Dothe next half century, until all France, except Brittany, acknowledged the control of one of the Frankish kingdoms; for after the death of Clovis his possessions had fallen apart into Neustria, the country of the West Franks, Austrasia. that of the East Franks, and in the southeast Burgundy. His successors were less able men and are nicknamed rois faineants (do-nothing kings). They left the affairs of state more and more to their subordinates and gave themselves up to idle, often evil lives.

The principal officer of the king's household was called The Mayors the mayor of the palace. He had charge of the affairs of of the Palace the kingdom and led the army in the king's name. mayors were more able than their sovereigns and frequently ignored the ruler. Pippin of Heristal was mayor of the Pippin of palace for the king of Austrasia, and forced the kings of Heristal Neustria and Burgundy to make him their principal minister also. A similar arrangement today would prevail if the prime minister of England were to compel the French government to make him prime minister of France also, and the German government to make him chancellor of the empire. Such an arrangement made the mayor of the palace a more important figure than the kings and furthered a union between the countries. Pippin transmitted his triple office Charles Marto his son Charles, who was called "The Hammer" because tel (The Hamof his great victory over the invading Mohammedans at the battle of Tours in 732 A.D.

Shortly after the death of Charles Martel his older son, Pippin, King Pippin, became sole mayor of the palace. After consulta- of the Franks tion with the pope, with his approval and that of the Frankish people, Pippin deposed the faineant king then on the throne and himself assumed the crown of the Franks. This was a recognition of the merit of his family, a tribute to the statesmanship of his father, and an acknowledgment of his own superiority over the line of Clovis. The participation of the pope in his accession to the throne was a reintroduction

of the close relation which had existed between church and state in ancient Hebrew history, when the king was regarded as the "Lord's anointed." This idea was to reach its flower in the theory of the divine right of Kings.¹ (See p. 315.)



¹ Dr. Robinson points out the significance of papal participation in the selection of a Frankish ruler as follows: "The kings of the Germans up to this time had been military leaders, selected, or holding their office, by the will of the people, or at least of the aristocracy. Their

States of the Church or

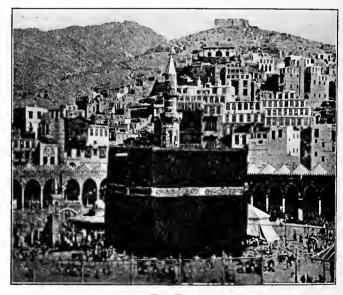
The pope felt the need for a closer relation between the Origin of the church and the rising family of Frankish princes. In addition to the religious sentiment which unquestionably prompted Papal States his action, the ruler of the church had material motives which made the alliance valuable. It was at this time that the pope was having his controversy with the emperor, and nearer home the Lombard rulers of the Po valley were planning an invasion of his territory. When the most ambitious of the Lombard kings, desirous of founding a new German kingdom to take in all the peninsula, invaded the papal lands. Pope Stephen commanded Pippin to come to his aid. This act was of momentous importance. It further widened the breach between the emperor and the pope and put an end to a project for the unification of Italy. Pippin entered Italv at the head of a large army, conquered the Lombard king, and compelled him to surrender the central zone to the pope. This region, which the Lombards had previously taken from the viceroy of the Byzantine empire, Pippin granted to the pope, and thus formed the territory known for over a thousand years as the papal states or states of the church. Pippin's reign is important because of the papal recognition of his position and because the temporal authority of the pope was recognized by a civil ruler.

54. The Rise of Islam. — In the deserts of Arabia a wild, Mohammed heroic people had existed from the earliest days of recorded history. They had been the conquerors of the proudest empires of ancient times and had never bowed the knee to Rome. The religion of the Arabs was similar to that of the Hebrews, monotheistic, although some idolatrous practices had been introduced during the first few centuries of the Christian era. At Mecca, the seat of their supreme god, there was born in the year 570 A.D. a peculiar and sickly

rule had no divine sanction, but only that of general acquiescence backed up by sufficient skill and popularity to frustrate the efforts of rivals. By anointing Pippin in accordance with ancient Jewish custom, first by Boniface and then by the pope himself, 'a German chieftain was', as Gibbon expresses it, 'transformed into the Lord's anointed.'"

¹ The papacy remained a barrier to the unification of Italy until 1870.

child. Of noble descent, but poor, he adopted the occupation of stock-raiser, and was fortunate enough to win the heart of his employer, a wealthy widow. After his marriage he had abundant means to adopt another mode of life. About the age of forty the disease with which he had always been fighting seems to have gained the upper hand, for he then announced that the angel Gabriel had appeared to him in a dream. He claimed that he was ordered to preach against



THE KAABA

Located at Mecca. The chief sanctuary of Islam. First erected, according to the legend, by Abraham and Ishmael. In its walls is set the sacred black stone. This was broken by fire in 683, but its parts were held together in a setting of silver. The Kaaba has been reconstructed several times since Mohammed's day. The building is covered with a heavy black silk damask—the sacred carpet—which is replaced by a new one each year.

the idolatry which had entered into the Arab religion, and to proclaim as the true doctrine that there is but one God and that Mohammed is his prophet.1 He was sincere in his delusions, for within a quarter of a century he had converted all of his countrymen. Within a century after his death his followers outnumbered the Christians.

Mohammed was at first received with scorn and hostility The Hejira by the Arab chieftains. In the year 622 A.D. he was forced to flee for his life from Mecca to Medina, where he made many friends and converts to his views. This flight, called the Heijra by his followers, took place in the year I of the Mohammedan's calendar, for his converts reckon time after that event, as do Christians from the birth of Christ. Mohammed was unable to read or write, but was, nevertheless, familiar with the best literature of the Semitic races, including the Bible. He dictated to his disciples many rules of con- The Koran duct, forms for prayers, and short anecdotes of his life and work, which have been collected into a volume called the Koran, the sacred book of the faith. His religion is called Islam Islam, which means submission to God's will; for he taught that Kismet, or fate, rules everything. Its rules of conduct are few and simple. A Mohammedan must pray five times daily with his face toward the holy city, and make at least one pilgrimage thither during his life. He must give a tenth of his wealth to the poor, abstain from all alcoholic drinks, fast at certain seasons of the year, and do nothing dishonorable. Mohammed taught that there is a future life of the utmost physical happiness, such as feasting and the like, in store for true believers, but the wicked and the unbelievers are to suffer torments in hell. War against unbelievers is sacred and obligatory upon true Mohammedans, and since Allah is with his followers, those who fall in battle will go direct to Paradise.

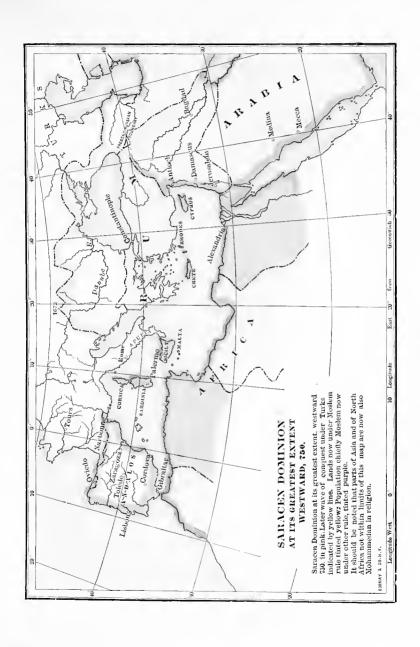
After his death his work was carried on by men called

¹ His symptoms were those of epilepsy or of a mild form of delusionary insanity. Many famous characters of history by the fervor of their convictions and the singular purity and nobleness of their lives have gained wonderful fame, while at the same time they have shown the symptoms of serious mental disorder, such as the belief in the delusions which constantly hovered over them.

Growth of Mohammedan Power kalifs, who possessed greater power throughout the Mohammedan world than that of the pope in Christendom. The kalifs gave an unbelieving people its choice of accepting the faith of Islam, of paying a heavy tribute, or of death. To most of the Eastern people it is probable that Islam seemed merely another Christian heresy, especially as Mohammed taught that Christ is indeed a great prophet. Within a century the new faith had spread from Persia to Spain, and over two hundred million men today accept as true gospel the teachings of the fanatical Arab. Wherever Islam has spread it has at first produced vigorous results which seemed good, but "it seems gradually to sap the energy of the nations which adopt it, and leads, after a few generations of greatness, to a stagnation and decay, which the Moslem in his self-satisfied bigotry is too blind to perceive. Islam is a good religion to die by — but not a good religion to live by." (Oman, "The Dark Ages.")

The rapid growth of the Mohammedan empire after the death of its founder was facilitated in the East by the exhaustion of the eastern Roman empire, which was resting after conquering a terrible opponent. This was a revived Persian kingdom, which had conquered Syria, Palestine, and Egypt, under the great Persian Chosroes. He who had ordered the emperor of Constantinople to come as a suppliant to him was commanded by Mohammed to recognize Islam, and it can be imagined with what scorn he treated this order. Heraclius, the Byzantine ruler, at last defeated Chosroes and restored the lost provinces to the empire of the East. Both the Byzantine and Persian empires were so weakened that they were within twenty years at the mercy of the kalifs. The Mohammedans gained all the north coast of Africa and established a Moorish state in the Spanish peninsula, after having overcome the Gothic kingdom there. In 732 A.D. the Moors invaded southern France, but were met by Charles Martel between Tours and Poitiers and defeated with great loss. This victory of the Franks put an end for a time to the inroads of the Moors, and by some authorities is con-

Tours or Poitiers





sidered to have saved western Europe from becoming Mohammedan in civilization 1

55. Charlemagne's Life and Work. - Charles, the oldest Personal Apson of Pippin, afterward called Charlemagne or Carolus pearance and Magnus (Charles the Great), became ruler of the Franks in 768. He was tall, of good build, with fair hair and skin and blue eyes, a typical German. He was strong in body and mind and delighted in manly sports of all kinds, excelling in swimming and riding. "He wore the dress of his native country; next his body a linen shirt and linen drawers; then a tunic with a silken border, and stockings. He bound his legs with garters (like the puttees of the present day) and wore shoes on his feet. In the winter he protected his shoulders and chest with a vest made of the skins of otters and sable. He wore a blue cloak and was always girt with his sword, the hilt and belt being of gold and silver. Sometimes he wore a jewelled sword, but only on great festivals or when receiving foreign ambassadors. On festivals he was clad in a garment woven with gold and shoes studded with iewels. his cloak fastened with a golden clasp, and wearing a crown of gold set with precious stones. At other times his dress differed little from that of a 'private person.'" Charlemagne was fond of listening to music and to reading and was fairly well educated, according to the standards of the time, as he was able to speak Latin and to understand some Greek, in addition to a good knowledge of his own tongue.2

Romance has made of him a very Alexander, who swept His Conover Europe during the half century of his reign leading a quests myriad lances, conquering and civilizing countless hordes of barbarians. Had he possessed half the generalship attributed to him by these medieval legends, he would have forced the Mohammedans out of Europe, and have planted his banners upon the walls of Constantinople. During his reign

Traits

¹ Others hold that this was a temporary setback to the Mohammedans, and that its importance has been greatly overestimated.

² He was never able to learn to write, although he kept writing materials near him at all times, even under his pillow, so that he could practise at every spare moment.

the Frankish dominions were increased, partly by his own efforts and partly as a result of the work of the counts of the marches, officers whom he put in charge of the border provinces. Among the most important conquests of his reign was the overthrow of the heathen Saxons, who occupied the north-central part of Germany. The religion of this people was of the gloomiest sort of battle worship, and savage and cruel customs prevailed. After nine campaigns. lasting for thirty years in all, the foundation for modern Germany was laid in the forests along the Elbe River. Towns sprang up, monasteries were built; everywhere the zealous Benedictines went to and fro, spreading the civilization of the Romans and Franks. Charlemagne tried to force the Moors out of Spain, but was unable to drive them permanently further south than the river Ebro. Another important campaign of Charlemagne was undertaken against a Lombard king who had seized cities in northern Italy and thus was threatening the supremacy of the pope. As his predecessor had appealed to Pippin, so this pope appealed for aid to Charlemagne, and reminded him of the friendly relations which had existed between the papacy and his family. Charlemagne responded by invading Lombardy with a large army, by capturing Pavia, its capital, and by forcing the Lombard king to abdicate in his favor. Thenceforth Charlemagne was king of the Lombards as well as of the Franks. By conquering the Bavarians, who occupied the lands between his Saxon conquests and Lombardy, he rounded out his empire.

Statesmanship

Government of the Franks

As a statesman Charlemagne was pre-eminent. This is shown in two ways. He realized the necessity of having some co-operation of the people with himself in the affairs of government, and he won a greater loyalty to his rule by preserving the local customs of the people he conquered. In the spring of each year an assembly, called the Mayfield, composed of the principal landowners and clergymen of the

¹ The slaughter of a part of his army in the pass of Roncevalles by the fierce Basques of the Pyrenees furnished the suggestion for the Song of Roland, one of the greatest medieval epics.

realm, met at the call of the king and talked over the capitularies or laws proposed by him. At an autumn meeting of the chief officials, affairs of administration were discussed. The king was assisted by a permanent council of important Assemblies officers, among whom were the high almoner, a representative of the church in its relations with the government; the chancellor, who drew up in the form of capitularies the king's ideas in regard to needed legislation: the chamberlain. the chief officer of the court, who arranged all public ceremonials; and the count of the palace, who had chief control over the administration of justice.

and Important Officials

tive System

Charlemagne gained the loyalty of the people of several Administraconquered provinces by permitting them to retain their old customs and laws. In the cases of Brittany and the Spanish province he appointed the defeated native chief to rule as the king's representative under the title of duke. Border provinces, called marches, were ruled by grafs or counts. The missi dominici, a highly important feature of his administrative system, were pairs of superintendents, sent by the king from county to county to examine into the acts and finances of the large landholders. Thus Charlemagne kept himself well informed about his great vassals. He was in no danger of being deceived by misleading reports from a pair of missi acting in collusion with a landholder, because, as he always sent a clergyman and a layman out on such a tour, they never agreed sufficiently to be able to deceive him.

As a promoter of learning Charlemagne ranks high. In Patronage of the turmoil of barbarian invasion and bloody kingdom- Learning building which had filled the centuries immediately preceding his reign, education had been sadly neglected except in a few monasteries. Even the churchmen had become careless of their learning, as is shown by the poorly constructed letters written by prominent clerics of the eighth century. In 780 A.D. Charlemagne issued an order to the clergymen to open schools for the education of the young men of the kingdom. He set an example to his people by opening a school within his own palace for the education of his sons and those of the Frankish nobility, and called to his head the famous English-

man named Alcuin. Other famous professors in this school were Paul the Deacon, a Lombard clergyman, whose history of the Lombard people is extremely valuable source material, and Eginhard, from whose biography of Charlemagne the quotation on page 143 is taken.

Coronation of Charlemagne as Emperor The most important event in the life of Charlemagne was the re-establishment of the Roman empire in the West.



AIX-LA-CHAPELLE (Aachen)

The round church at the left was built by Charlemagne as a palace chapel. In the fourteenth century a Gothic choir was added to transform the whole into a cathedral.

Eginhard relates that Charlemagne had gone down into Italy to hear charges against the pope. "On his arrival Pope Leo went to meet him. He received the pope reverently and dined with him. On the birthday of our Lord

(December 25, 801) the king went to mass at St. Peter's (the pope's own church in Rome). As he knelt in prayer before the altar. Pope Leo set a crown upon his head, while all the Roman people shouted, 'Long life and victory to the great and pacific emperor of the Romans!' After this he was called emperor and Augustus." The pope's reasons for thus restoring the old Western empire were threefold: sincere regard for Charlemagne and gratitude toward him for his friendly attitude; knowledge that he was the actual ruler of nearly all of western Europe and therefore merited the imperial title; hatred for the iconoclastic Eastern rulers provoking the wish to deprive them of even the semblance of authority in the Italian peninsula.

Although Charlemagne was called emperor of the Romans. it is important to note differences between his empire and the older one. His was essentially German in language and institutions and one in which church and state were co-ordinate, while the religion was Christian. The empire of Augustus was Roman in language and institutions, and one in which the church, which was pagan, was subordinate to the state.

56. The Decline of Charlemagne's Empire. - Notwithstanding the strongly organized system of government, the revival of interest in general culture, and the spread of Christianity with its tendencies toward order, the empire of Charlemagne disintegrated shortly after his reign. Even before his death he had assigned large parts of his empire to his three sons, of whom Louis the Pious was the only one left to succeed him. Louis' weak reign sowed seeds of future disaster in the Frankish kingdom, and forced to abdicate by his rebellious sons, he took refuge in a monastery. To these sons we must look for the beginnings of at least two of the modern states of Europe. Lothair, who held the imperial title, was forced by his brothers, Charles and Louis the German, to share his domain with them. The agreement binding 842 A.D. Charles and Louis to mutual offence and defence against Lothair is known as the Strasburg Oath, and is important because it gives the first written examples of the medieval

Differences between Charlemagne's Empire and the Old Roman Empire

Weakness of Louis the Pious

French and German languages. Louis the German took his oath in French before the Frankish soldiers of Charles, while Charles used German for a like reason; namely, that the soldiers might understand him.

Strasburg Oath

Early French

Pro Deo amur at pro christian poblo et nostro commun salvament

In Goddes minna ind in these christianes folches ind unser bedhero gealtinissi

Translation

For God's love and for this Christian people and for our mutual salvation

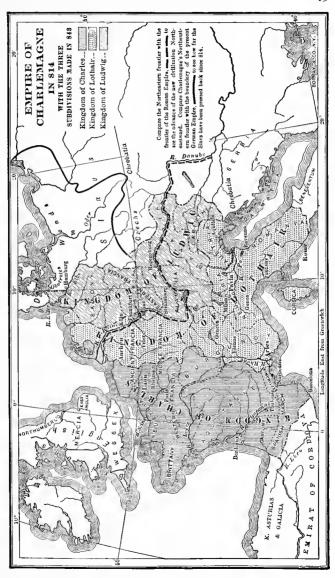
I will henceforth from this day as far as God endows me with knowledge and ability treat my brother as one should rightly treat a brother providing that he does likewise to me; and with Lothair will I go into no treaty that may work harm to this my brother." The early French was little different from Latin, but both languages differed considerably from their modern forms.

Treaties of Verdun and Mersen

A year later they forced Lothair to agree, in the famous Treaty of Verdun, to the division of the empire into three portions: Charles received the western land, which was later called France; Louis gained the lands east of the Rhine, including Saxony and Bavaria, the beginnings of Germany; and Lothair retained the title of emperor and the sovereignty over a kingdom with no geographical unity extending from the North Sea to the southern part of Italy, between the possessions of his brothers. After the death of Lothair, in 870, Charles and Louis redivided between them Lothair's kingdom north of the Alps, leaving Italy and the empty imperial title to Lothair's son. This division of Charlemagne's empire is of the utmost importance because it marks the beginnings of modern France, Germany, and Italy as geographical facts. The middle kingdom was a cause of strife between France and Germany for a thousand years, which was ended by the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, after which Prussia formed the German empire and annexed Lorraine. (Lothair's kingdom expressed in Latin is Lothairii regnum, which became successively shortened to Lotharingia and Lorraine.)

The reasons for the break-up of Charlemagne's empire were the weakness of Charlemagne's successors and their

¹ Treaty of Mersen.



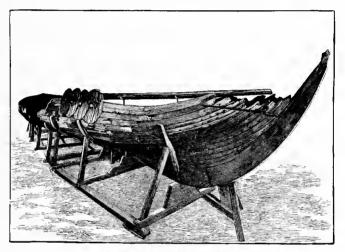
Reasons for the Decline of Charlemagne's Empire (1) Weakness of his Successors (2) Invasions of the Northmen

inability to hold together the wide extent of territory: second, invasions by the Northmen, the sea robbers who came from the shores of Denmark and the Scandinavian peninsula. At first they rayaged the coasts and such inland districts as they could reach by rowing up navigable rivers, but after a time a second stage of invasion began with the settlement of bands of these rude folk in districts granted to or conquered by them. They were called vikings or sea-kings, and in their long, swiftly rowed, dragon-prowed ships they penetrated to coasts far remote from their native shores. Such were Leif Ericson, the reputed discoverer of Vinland or North America: Rollo or Rolf, the Ganger or Wanderer, the founder of the duchy of Normandy in northern France; Ruric, who penetrated Russia by the roundabout route of the Mediterranean and Black seas and established there a kingdom which was the germ of modern Russia; and Robert Guiscard, a Northman or Norman, who formed an alliance with a pope and received the crown of Sicily. A third reason for the weakness of the empire was the growth of the power of the rulers of subordinate parts of the empire, until these great vassals, or landholders, could not be controlled by the emperor. An instance of this was the ruthless seizure of part of the emperor's personal domain in the Treaty of Mersen.

(3) Growth of Power of Great Vassals: Feudalism

57. Summary of the German Kingdoms and the Papacy.—During the troubled time of Lombard misrule the officers of the Christian church were the chief factors which kept civilization from being destroyed by barbarism. Aided by the monastic spirit, which prompted to deeds of heroism and self-sacrifice, the fathers of the church taught the barbarians to govern themselves and to value law and order. A theological dispute between the Roman emperor and the bishop of Rome caused a breach between the church of the East and the church of the West and further strengthened the pope in his position as supreme authority in the Western church. In the East an Arab fanatic preached a new religion which in less than a century had conquered western Asia and northern Africa. Under the eyes of the popes there

developed in western Europe a strong Frankish kingdom which thrust back the wave of Mohammedan invasion and thus prevented Europe from becoming oriental in its later civilization. Pippin punished the Lombards for attacking papal territory and founded the states of the church. His son, Charlemagne, laid the foundations of three modern



REMAINS OF A VIKING SHIP

European states and by his patronage of education and of the church set up a higher standard of culture. After his death his dominions were divided. The story of how each became a great nation is the history of modern Europe.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Show on outline maps of Europe the Mohammedan empire at its widest extent; locate Mecca, Medina, Jerusalem, Cairo, Alexandria, Damascus, Byzantium, Granada, Poitiers (Tours). Show on outline map of western Europe the empire of Charlemagne; locate Aix, Strasburg, Rome, Ravenna, Verdun, Mersen, the states of the church; with different colored lines show the divisions by the treaties of Verdun and

Mersen. Write in your note-books a brief discussion of each of the following topics: The Saracen Conquest of Spain; Important Teachings of the Koran; Brief Accounts of the Lives and Work of Gregory the Great, St. Columban, Boniface, Gregory of Tours; Influences of the Early Church; Conversion of Clovis; the Salic Law; Charlemagne's Conception of the Duty of a Ruler as Found in the Capitulary of Year 802; The Palace School; Reasons for the Invasions of the Various German Tribes; The Rival Mohammedan Kalifates (Caliphates). Compare the careers of Julius Caesar and Charlemagne.

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CHAPTER VIII

EMPIRE AND PAPACY

58. The Growth of the Medieval Empire. - For nearly Otto the a century after the Treaty of Mersen the history of the eastern part of Charlemagne's realm is of little interest. The power of the emperor was little respected and no great figure appeared on the stage of action. With the reign of Otto the Great closer relations were established again between the German rulers and the papacy. The imperial title gained by Charlemagne had not been retained by his successors, who were too busily occupied in defending their possessions against the invading Northmen or in trying to prevent their hereditary lands from breaking up into the folk duchies of the tribes conquered by Charlemagne. Meanwhile the imperial name had been borne by a number of Italian princes.

Otto was able to repel all invaders, defeating the Magyar hordes and driving them across the Danube, where they founded the kingdom still bearing their name. He also bound the troublesome vassal states more closely to his own central government by the wise policy of putting his own relatives upon their ducal thrones. After thus rendering tranguil affairs at home, he turned his eyes to Italy, whence an appeal for aid had come to him from a sadly troubled pope, who hoped to find in him a second Charles the Great. In return for his aid against a troublesome Italian prince 962 A.D. the pope crowned him emperor of the "Holy Roman Empire," thus signally indicating the mystic bond which united the empire and the papacy, a union productive of much trouble to pope and emperor alike, in that neither was willing to yield precedence to the other in state affairs.

¹ Hungary, the kingdom of the Magyars,

Annexation of Burgundy to the Empire The successors of Otto the Great endeavored to follow in his footsteps. Conrad II, who ruled about fifty years later, was very successful in his administration. He adopted Otto's policy in regard to the stem duchies and secured the annexation of the kingdom of Burgundy to the empire. Burgundy or Arles lay in the southeastern part of what is now France, east of the Rhone River. Through it ran the great arteries of trade between the cities of Italy and of western Europe, and its people were among the most enlightened and prosperous of the time.

59. The Question of Church Reform. — One of the chief causes of dispute between the emperor and the pope was the question of leadership. Each desired to rule and each thought himself the only person competent to govern and even to reform the other. Without doubt both church and state had permitted conditions to arise which required improvement. In becoming wealthy the church had certain problems to solve, none harder than the group of difficulties connected with the ownership of real estate. The church held many lands, willed to it by devout Christians or acquired by purchase. Over such land as was within the empire, the imperial government naturally claimed authority; whereas the churchmen, as representatives of the Divine Power, felt that it ill became a mere temporal ruler to interfere with them. The dispute came to an issue on the question of investiture, the ceremony by which the bishop or high churchman was inaugurated into office. The bishop was not only the supervising priest of a diocese; he was frequently the imperial representative in the division of the empire coextensive with that diocese. Hence the emperor claimed the right of inaugurating the candidate for episcopal honors. Nothing more clearly illustrates the truth of the statement that there are two sides to every question than does this quarrel between church and state. From the standpoint of the emperor and the state some control over the appointment of church officials was necessary; but, on the other hand, to the churchman it seemed almost sacrilege for a violent statesman or blood-stained war-chief to bestow

Investiture

the sacred office of bishop. This question was the central point around which raged the quarrel between empire and

papacy.

Within the church itself other matters called for attention. Simony Men of great wealth but of worldly life had frequently been able to secure for themselves or their favorites important church positions for the sake of the added wealth or dignity thereby conferred. This practice, condemned by the best men of that time, is known as simony, after Simon the Magician, who attempted to buy the power of performing miracles from the apostles. This evil tended to bring the church officers into disrepute, and even to destroy the spiritual motives of the clergy. Another matter for re- Celibacy of form was the marriage of clergymen. The rule of the the Clergy church which forbade clergymen to marry was often disobeved, but as the church became richer, the enforcement of this rule became more and more necessary from the standpoint of the church. A regular clergyman was supposed to surrender all his property to the common ownership of the church, and therefore a married monk who might desire to provide for his family was a danger to the property rights of the church. Furthermore the church believed that he would be less able to devote all his time and mind to the interests of his calling. Finally a married clergy under feudal conditions threatened the establishment of an hereditary priesthood which was contrary to the democratic practice of the church. The early church fathers had recognized these objections to a married priesthood, and numerous church councils and popes enjoined celibacy (bachelorhood) upon the clergy.

The chief agent for reform within the church was the The Reforms Cluniac movement. This began at the Burgundian monastery of Cluny, which belonged to the pope and into which none of the evils mentioned above had crept. The Cluniac monks were renowned as earnest, hard-working men, who contributed much to education and culture and who endeavored to elevate the moral standards of the time. This was due perhaps to the fact that instead of maintaining a

of Clunv

shut-in life in their own monastery, the monks of Cluny founded many branch houses, which were known collectively with the mother house as the Congregation of Cluny. The Congregation was subject to the abbot of Cluny and to the pope and aided the church in its struggles with the German rulers.

Policy of Gregory VII

60. Pope Gregory VII's Struggle with the Empire. -Among the most noted of the early supporters of Cluniac ideals was Pope Gregory VII, the story of whose struggles with Henry IV of Germany is one of the most thrilling and significant in European history. Early in his papacy he announced at a church council that thereafter no clergyman who had gained his office by the payment of money would be allowed to retain his office or to perform any rites of the church. Shortly afterwards he issued a papal bull forbidding all clergymen to receive investiture from the hand of any layman, thus throwing down the gage of battle before the emperor. A very famous document of the period, often called Gregory's Dictatus, although not the work of that pontiff, expresses the platform of the papal party in this struggle by the following claims: The pope has the sole power of deposing rulers, of making new laws for the church, of calling church councils, of absolving subjects from their oaths of fidelity to wicked rulers. He is the supreme judge of Christendom and no act of a church council is legal without his consent.

The Dictatus

Not content with merely asserting such claims, Gregory tried to force several rulers to recognize them by sending his legates, or papal ambassadors, to the several courts. The answer that he received from William the Conqueror of England is characteristic of that sturdy monarch: "I refuse to do fealty, nor will I; because neither have I promised it, nor do I find that my predecessors did it to your predecessors." But Gregory was too much absorbed in his struggle with a nearer ruler to attempt to humble the English king. The German emperor Henry IV was a rash and hot-tempered youth who paid no heed to Gregory's edict against lay investiture, but who returned this reply to the

pope's letter of censure: "Henry, king not by usurpation, but by the holy ordination of God, to Hildebrand, not pope, but false monk. Come down, then, from that apostolic seat which you have obtained by violence; for you have been condemned by us and our bishops for your evil rule."



THE PENITENCE AT CANOSSA

Barefooted, clad in the meanest rags, without protection from the inclemency of the wintry weather, Henry drank the cup of humiliation to the dregs in order to make his peace with the little man whose slender form to him embodied the might of the church.

Gregory's answer was to excommunicate, or declare outlawed from the church, the insolent emperor.

The German bishops. Canossa on whose support Henry had relied, became lukewarm after he was excommunicated by the pope, and many of his lords combined against him. He was compelled to seek forgiveness of Gregory, and the once proud king became a humble suppliant at the gates of the little town of Canossa in northern Italy, wherein the pope was wintering.

pope's forgiveness,

Armed with the Victory of the Emperor

Note the reference to the sacred character of the kingly office.

² Each pope, after his election to the papacy, renounces his former name and styles himself one or several names most common to the early church

fathers. Hildebrand, on becoming pope, chose the name Gregory, being the seventh pope of that designation.

Henry returned to Germany and attempted to crush the discontented nobles who had set up a rival leader as emperor. Henry broke his promises to the pope, and Gregory finally took sides with Henry's rival by issuing a second excommunication against him. The majority of the German princes regarded the interference of Gregory in purely German affairs, such as the choice of a king, as attempted usurpation of their rights, and therefore rallied around Henry. Within two years Gregory surrendered Rome into the hands of the emperor and withdrew from public life forever. Yet even in defeat this hero of churchly ideals towers up grandly.

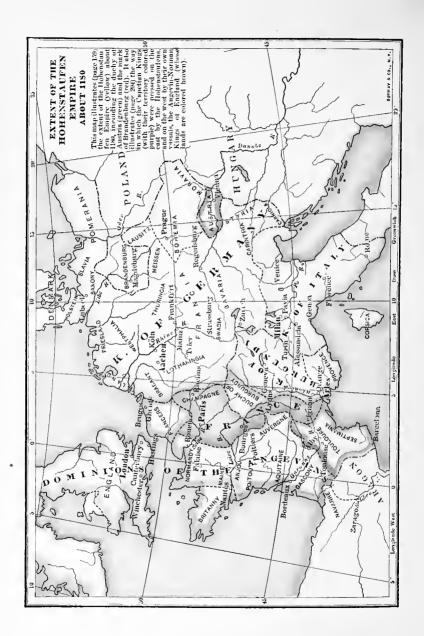
Investiture compromised by the Concordat of Worms In the reign of Henry's son, Henry V, the question of investiture was peaceably settled by the Concordat of Worms, I122 A.D., by which the king agreed that, while he should thereafter invest the bishops with their fiefs, the pope or his representative had the sole right to invest them with the spiritual office and its emblems.

61. The Papacy and the Hohenstaufen Emperors. — Scarcely had the investiture dispute been settled when the popes were required to hold the balance of power between the emperor and the thriving mercantile cities of Lombardy.1 With the reign of the third ruler of the Hohenstaufen line, Frederick I, called Barbarossa or Redbeard, the medieval empire reached its height. Frederick had a high ideal of the importance of his position, as is shown in a letter announcing his election to the imperial title: "God has established two powers by which this world should be ruled, the empire and the papacy." His reign was one long struggle to retain the supremacy over temporal affairs against the efforts of discontented nobles of Germany, who tried to place the Guelph claimant 2 on the throne, against the intrigues of the popes, and against the attempts at independence on the part of the Lombard towns.

¹ The Po valley has been called Lombardy since its occupation by the Lombards.

² The right of the Hohenstaufens to the imperial throne was fiercely contested for over a century by members of the Guelph family which ruled in Saxony.





With the reign of Frederick a new era began in the un- The Lombard folding of town life. Townsmen gained a new sense of political freedom, brought into being by the struggle against imperial oppression. The towns of northern Italy began at this time to grow in wealth and prominence as their commerce and industry increased. Through many of them lay the highroad between the German ruler's peculiarly hereditary domain and his imperial capital. Through them he must pass on his journey to receive the imperial crown from the hands of the pope. By forming leagues, these towns were able to win certain political privileges from the emperor.

The most famous of these leagues was formed as follows. Formation of The city of Milan, one of the largest and wealthiest of the the Lomhard cities of northern Italy, insulted the imperial representative, who had been sent to inquire into complaints of extortion and cruelty laid against the city by some of the neighboring small towns. This outrage brought Frederick into Italy. where he received envoys from several towns with complaints. against Milan. In a short time an assembly was called at Roncaglia, 1158 A.D., at which representatives of the towns and of the emperor discussed the respective rights of the town and of the imperial government. This assembly decided most of the disputed points in favor of Frederick, whereupon the leading towns of northern Italy, realizing that submission would be fatal to their liberty, formed the Lombard League. After inflicting a decisive defeat upon the imperial forces at the battle of Legnano (1176), the league opened up negotiations which led to the Peace of Constance (1183), in which the emperor, while retaining a shadowy sort of overlordship over them, gave up the right of taxing the towns without their consent.

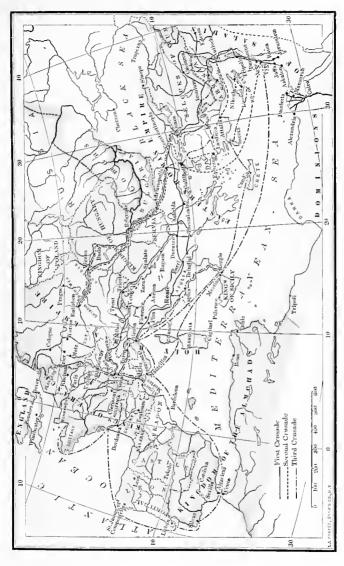
The German rulers had long desired the lands of southern The Story of Italy and Sicily, but Frederick was the first to gain them. by successfully arranging a marriage treaty between his son, Henry, and the heiress to the Norman kingdom of Naples and Sicily. Sicily has had a history of wonderful changes: colonized by the Greeks, partly conquered by the Cartha-

ginians, incorporated into the Roman empire; then, upon the downfall of Roman rule in the West, alternately ruled by native princes, viceroys of the Byzantine emperors or Mohammedan corsairs, until organized in the eleventh century as a kingdom jointly with southern Italy by a family of northern sea-kings.

Henry VI

Hardly had Henry VI taken up the administration of his wife's dominions when word came of the death of his father. Frederick I. The ruler of Germany and all Italy and Sicily found that his path was beset with difficulties. In Germany the Guelph claimant raised the standard of revolt, while his wife's subjects, preferring the rule of a countryman to that of the German husband of their queen, chose Tancred, a Norman count, to rule over them. Fortune favored Henry in his hour of need: Richard Lionheart, on his way home to England¹ from the Third Crusade, was captured by a loyal vassal of Henry VI and held prisoner because of the aid given Tancred by the English king. The great ransom paid by Englishmen to rescue their king enabled Henry to buy off many of his rebellious subjects, and the opportune death of Tancred left him in undisputed possession of the empire. In the midst of his triumph Henry fell a victim to disease, leaving an infant son, Frederick, and a brother, Philip, to uphold the honor of the Hohenstaufens. (See p. 167 for the outcome of the family.)

Occasion for the Crusades 62. The Crusades. — The decline of the medieval empire was contemporaneous with the Crusades, the warlike expeditions of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, usually aimed against the Mohammedans in Syria. In the eleventh century the Byzantine empire had reconquered most of western Asia from the Arabs; but about the time that William the Norman was making his plans for the conquest of England, a more formidable people than the Arabs appeared, — namely, the Seljuk Turks, — who defeated the Eastern emperor and drove his forces across the Bosphorus. Fearing that they would capture Constantinople, the Emperor Alexius asked Pope Urban II to arouse western Europe against the Turks.



THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD IN THE DAYS OF THE CRUSADES



Urban had adopted the policy of his famous predecessor, Council of Gregory VII, against the world rulers, and was even then Clermont carrying on the contest against Henry IV of Germany, and also against the son of William the Conqueror. He doubtless welcomed the opportunity to bring peace to Europe by drawing the attention of the temporal rulers to affairs outside of their own dominions, at the same time stimulating their interest in religion and the things of the church. At a great council held at Clermont (1005), Urban set forth the dangers threatening Constantinople and announced the capture of Jerusalem by the Turks. Jerusalem had always been a holy city in the eyes of Christians, so the news that the Turks were in possession and were not only mistreating Christian pilgrims to that city, but were even planning to invade Europe, as stated with great fervor by Urban, aroused the assembly to a high pitch. Urban painted a picture of Syria as a land flowing with milk and honey, in which homes might be obtained by all the poor and needy of Europe. The assemblage, excited at the thought of the desecration of the holy place, and further stimulated by the appeal to their desire for gain, cried with one accord, "It is the will of God." An agreement called the "Truce of God," which forbade warfare or duelling in western Europe for four days in each week, was made at this time, and the rulers decided to suspend all sentences against condemned persons who would agree to go on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. All these facts help to explain the eagerness of the Crusaders.

The general movement of thousands of Western Europeans, The First in response to the appeal made at Clermont, is known as the First Crusade, and had two phases. Within a few weeks after the council had adjourned, Peter the Hermit, a fanatical exhorter, collected a motley crowd of poor knights and discontented peasants and started by way of the forests of central Europe for the Holy Land. This phase did not prove dangerous to the Turks, for most of these misguided Crusaders fell in skirmishes with the Hungarians, whose fields they had foraged for supplies, and the remnant that reached Turkish soil was easily mastered. The second

Crusade

phase, under the leadership of Count Godfrey of Bouillon and other famous knights of the time, proved more effective. A large and well-equipped army under these leaders reached the Holy Land, and after a number of difficulties captured the city of Jerusalem. They established four principalities, known as the Latin kingdoms of Syria, one of which, the kingdom of Jerusalem, lasted one hundred and fifty years.

About 1100 A.D.

The Third Crusade Fifty years later the capture of one of the Christian cities in the Holy Land by the Turks led to a second but unsuccessful Crusade to recapture it. The city of Jerusalem was recaptured by Saladin, the heroic sultan of Egypt, and there immediately followed the Third Crusade, one most far-



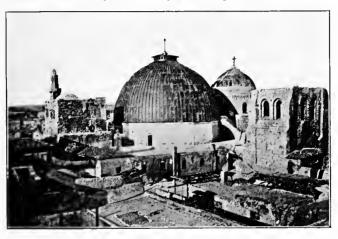
CRUSADERS

Mounted Crusaders on their way to the Holy Land. When a Crusader set out he wore a cross on his breast; returning he wore it on his back.

reaching in its consequences. The leaders were Richard Lionheart of England, Philip Augustus of France, his bitter enemy, and Frederick Barbarossa. The latter had just arranged the marriage of his son to the heiress of Sicily. (See p. 159.) Feeling affairs secure at home, he started for Syria, but while attempting to cross a stream in Asia Minor, was drowned. The remaining leaders quarrelled with each other more than with the Saracens of Saladin, but the general-ship of Richard won the respect of that skilful leader. A peace was concluded between the Christians and Saladin,

by which he granted to them the right to visit the sacred places at Ierusalem.

An instance of the fanaticism of the crusading spirit may Other Crube found in the Children's Crusade (1212). Thousands of children started out from Germany in the hope that by the sinlessness of their lives they might accomplish the miracle of retaking the Holy Sepulchre. Some discouraged, returned home safely, but many were captured and sold as



THE HOLY SEPULCHRE The sepulchre is located under the large dome.

slaves long before they reached the Holy Land. The Crusading spirit was at times diverted from its original purpose. The Venetians, urged by Innocent III to retake Jerusalem, turned aside to Constantinople and captured the capital of the Byzantine empire. For nearly sixty years this wealthy city, with its enormous commerce and industry, its stores of learning, and its high state of general culture, was in the hands of the Venetians, to the incalculable gain of their city in wealth and learning. Another Crusade was directed by Innocent III against the heretics of southern France.

Two religious sects in that part of Europe were causing

Heresy

the church considerable anxiety. The Albigensians, or people of Albi, believed the doctrines of the Roman Church were entirely wrong; and the Waldensians, or followers of Peter Waldo, taught that the doctrines of the church were true, but that many of the church officials led evil lives. Heresy was regarded in the middle ages not only as a sin,



A VENETIAN SHIP

These ships, propelled partly by sails and partly by oars, were familiar figures upon the Mediterranean in the middle ages. They presented a gay appearance with their decorated sails and flying pennants.

but even as a crime. because the officers of the church so frequently were also officials of the state that anyone who criticised one was considered the enemy of the other. If a person was found guilty of heresy by the court of the Inquisition, a stern tribunal of churchmen, he was handed over to the civil authorities to be burned at the stake or buried alive.1 Albi could not be tried individually for its heresy, so the pope induced Simon de

Montfort,² a noble of southern France, to put to the sword the inhabitants of the town.

There were several other Crusades directed against the Turks, but by 1244 the Latin kingdoms had failed and the civilization of western Europe, which the French leaders had

Effects of the Crusades Map

¹ The church shed no blood; that is, it determined the guilt of the accused, but took no part in the execution except that of spiritual comforter.

² Simon de Montfort was the father of the Simon de Montfort who led the barons of England against Henry III. (See p. 209.)

endeavored to transplant to that part of the world, died out in the towns of Syria. But the Crusades had an important effect upon the West from the standpoints of education, commerce, and standards of living. The Arab scholars were much broader in thought than the educated men of the same time in Europe. They had developed algebra and the rudiments of chemistry and had translated many of the works of old Greek philosophers into their own language. By coming in contact with them the Europeans gained educationally. The two centuries during which bands of Crusaders or individual pilgrims journeyed to the East were productive of a great increase in commerce. The people of Syria welcomed the importation of articles produced in the West, and the Franks who had settled there wished to obtain home comforts. Thus a market for European goods was created in the East. The merchants of the Lombard towns grew wealthy from carrying eastward the homely goods of the West and in bringing back the costly spices, silks, and jewels of the Orient. Everywhere in Europe the standard of living was improved. Articles previously regarded as luxuries for princes were thereafter used in even the humbler families. The townsmen engaged more in manufacturing, in order that the demand of the Easterners for linens and woollens might be met, and with the growth of towns went hand in hand a greater freedom of thought and action, which brought truer political liberty and higher religious views to the people of the towns.

Among the interesting features of the Crusades was the The Crusadformation of three important military-religious orders - ing Orders the Templars, Hospitallers, and Teutonic Knights. These societies were formed to defend pilgrims on their way to Jerusalem and to aid generally in the work of conquering and retaining the Holy Land. The Templars became very wealthy, and after the Crusades were over established themselves in powerful monasteries in France and England.1

¹ The haughty Templar is well pictured in *Ivanhoe*, and it is probable that in many instances these "Red-cross Knights" became oppressors of the poor.

The order received its name from the circumstance that it was formed to guard the Temple at Jerusalem. The Hospitallers, or Knights of St. John, began as a corps of men who looked after the sick and wounded Crusaders, but they acquired property and formed branches throughout Europe. The Teutonic Knights were formed for a similar purpose by a German merchant. At the conclusion of the Crusades they conquered the lands of the Prussians south of the Baltic Sea and established there a state destined to be the nucleus of the present German empire.

Innocent III and John of England

63. The Triumph of the Papacy and End of the Medieval Empire. —A good example of the great power of the papacy is afforded by the dealings of Innocent III with John of England. A dispute over the archbishopric of Canterbury gave the pope an opportunity to act as arbiter and to win from the king a recognition of his overlordship over England. a victory sought in vain by Gregory VII and Urban II. The ignoble King John, who later was forced to grant Magna Carta to the English people, refused to accept the choice of the monks of Canterbury, preferring a man of his own party. When asked to settle the dispute, Innocent III solved the problem by rejecting both the former candidates and by appointing as archbishop Stephen Langton, a man of the highest ability. I John was furious at the pope's decision and refused to receive Langton, but after the pope had placed an interdict over England, excommunicated the king, and threatened to give his crown to the son of the French king, John surrendered, received Langton as archbishop, acknowledged the pope to be his feudal superior, and promised to pay him an annual tribute.

The Last of the Hohenstaufens Henry VI's infant son was a ward of Innocent III, while the boy's uncle carried on the struggle of the house against a Guelph claimant to the throne. In this war of factions Innocent III reached the height of his power, as did the papacy also; for he favored first one side, then the other, and exercised, as in the case of John, the power claimed by

¹ This was a most momentous choice, for Stephen Langton was the leader of the barons who wrung Magna Carta from King John.

Gregory of deposing and of setting up earthly rulers. When only fifty-six Innocent died, leaving to his successors a struggle greater than any of his reign. Frederick II had been educated by both Christian and Mohammedan scientists and professors, at the court of the Sicilian rulers, and was very broad in his religious views. He decided to make his name more famous than that of his grandfather. Although he was insignificant in personal appearance, this slight man became the restorer of order in Germany, overcame the Lombard League, made his reign a truly golden age for the cities by curbing the powers of their feudal lords, recaptured for a short time the city of Jerusalem, although under the displeasure of the pope, and is considered by competent historians to have been the first of modern kings. Like his father, he died of disease on the eve of a new expedition. Within four years, 1254, his son followed him to the grave and the power of the Hohenstaufen family was ended. The medieval empire may be said to have come to a close with Frederick II, for a period of anarchy followed his death, and thereafter no German emperor made any definite attempt to regain his lost Italian kingdom.

64. The Organization of the Medieval Church. — The Differences papacy reached its height in the thirteenth century, with between the the pontificate of Innocent III. By examining its organization at this time, a conception can be formed of the immense ern Church historic importance of this institution and of the church of which it was the head. Between the medieval church and any modern church are many differences. In the first place membership in the medieval church was compulsory; a citizen of any medieval state was, whether he wished to be so considered or not, a member of the church, and could not separate himself from its authority without losing his right of protection from the state. Secondly, its revenues were raised by a definite system of taxes, called tithes, the payment of which was as necessary as the payment of the assessments of the civil government. Lastly, unlike the modern church, it performed all the functions of the state. It had its own courts and administrative officers, who often

Medieval

took upon themselves the duties neglected by state officials; it was organized like a monarchy, its king being the pope, who exercised tremendous power.

Power of the Pope

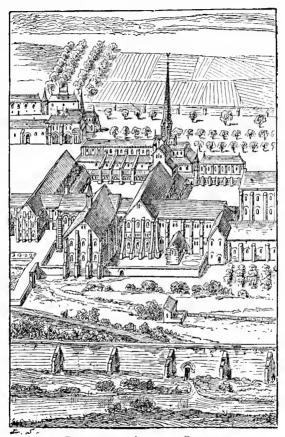
All the claims to power set forth in the Dictatus (see p. 156) had by this time been acknowledged by one or more of the temporal rulers. The pope exercised this power in four ways—over legislation, over the courts, over rulers, and over other churchmen. He controlled law-making by means of dispensations, that is, orders annulling church laws in certain cases; the courts by granting the right of appeal from decisions rendered elsewhere to his own court; rulers by threat of interdict—the closing of all religious services within the territory of a rebellious ruler, or by excommunication—the expulsion of an offender from membership in the church 1; and other churchmen by exercising the right of removal and appointment.

The Parish Priest The unit of organization within this spiritual empire was the parish, at the head of which was the parish priest. His duties were those of a priest of modern times and, in addition, the direction of the affairs of the parish in a much more autocratic manner than that of any modern Catholic pastor. The importance of his office cannot be overestimated. The priest in the services of the church, in the celebration of mass in which the church taught transubstantiation,² sometimes seemed to his congregation to possess superhuman power. Hence each parish became a compact unit of organization under the nearly absolute rule of its parish priest.

The Regular Clergy In addition to the secular clergy, as the priests and bishops of the church were called, there were numerous establishments of regular clergy, so called from the fact that they agreed on entering the order to live up to its rule (regula,

¹ The full force of excommunication is difficult for many modern people to realize. In the middle ages it was accepted as an utter blasting of all the hopes of future life; it rendered the excommunicate person an outlaw—even worse, a despicable criminal.

² Transubstantiation was the name given to the process by which the officiating clergyman changed the bread and wine into the body and blood of Christ. rule). These had no connection with the parish organization. Besides the older orders of monks, as the Benedic-



PLAN OF THE ABBEY DE CITEAUX

The abbey church stands at the back of the central block of buildings and forms the north side of the cloister.

tines or the Cluniacs, who from the first had their fixed places of abode in the monasteries of the order, there were The Franciscan Friars two orders called friars, or brothers, who did much to combat heresy, promote education, and carry on charitable work. The order of Franciscan friars was founded by the son of a wealthy tradesman of Assisi, who in his early years had lived a frivolous and worldly life, but who thereafter had suddenly turned to the life of a religious enthusiast. This Francis of Assisi soon drew to himself a little band of religious workers who followed out literally the command of the Bible, "Take nothing for your journey, neither staff, nor wallet, nor bread, nor money," and who went apart from place to place, living lives of service to the poor and suffering. After his death this order increased greatly in numbers and wealth and finally adopted the customs of the older monks, becoming one of the wealthiest and most influential of all the monastic orders.

The Dominican Friars The other order of friars, which did much to combat heresy, was established by Dominic, a Spaniard, to teach and preach against the Waldensian heresy. (See p. 164.) He recognized the truth of some of the charges brought by Waldo, and determined to reform the lives of the clergymen of his time. The Dominicans rapidly adopted the customs of the monastic orders and became a bulwark of the church against heretical teachings, at the same time promoting education and charity.

65. Summary of the Empire and the Papacy. — The empire of Charlemagne was revived and put on a new basis by Otto the Great. He and his immediate successors bestowed the great folk-duchies upon relatives of the emperor and added to the territories of the empire. In a struggle with the papacy over temporal supremacy, the emperors compromised the question of investiture, but, coming in contact with the growing independence of the commercial cities of Italy, just as the Crusades were opening up trade with the East, they were defeated by the spirit of nationality arising within their Italian possessions. The Crusades broadened the West and increased the commerce of that section with the East. The church attained to a high point of authority, as is shown by the fact that the popes of the thirteenth cen-

tury were masters of the states. Within the church evidences of laxity appeared which caused various heretical opinions, and also gave rise to new reform organizations within it.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Why was the assumption of the imperial title by the kings of Germany a mistake? Compare the idea of empire held by Charlemagne with that of Otto the Great. What inventions and scientific discoveries were brought to Europe as a result of the Crusades? Describe the relations between the eastern Roman empire and the Crusaders. Write in your note-books a report on the experiences of a Crusader: motives, vows, privileges, preparation, dress, armor, routes, benefits, and disadvantages of the experience. What were the sources of the pope's income? Explain the duties and importance of the medieval archbishops and bishops. How were they chosen? What were the seven sacraments of the medieval church? Explain the significance and importance of each. Quote Lea's description of the medieval church. Explain the methods of the Inquisition. Tell the story of the life of St. Francis, of St. Dominic. Contrast the Dominicans and Franciscans. Explain why Frederick II was "the first modern king." On a map of central Europe and Italy show the boundaries of the dominions of Frederick II at their widest extent. Locate Burgundy, Saxony, Lombardy, the states of the church, the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, Milan, Venice, Florence, Naples, Rome, Genoa.

On a map of the Mediterranean region show the Latin kingdoms in Syria, the eastern Roman empire, the routes of the Third Crusade. Locate Naples, Constantinople, Edessa, Antioch, Tripoli, Acre, Jerusalem.

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CHAPTER IX

ENGLAND IN THE EARLY MIDDLE AGES

66. Britain. - The British Isles were located so far Geography of from the centres of civilization in the ancient world that the British they were almost unknown until the time of Caesar. waters separating these islands from Europe are twenty-one miles wide at their narrowest point, the Straits of Dover, and three hundred miles wide at their broadest extent, the North Sea. Thousands of years before the dawn of history, but in comparatively recent geological times, England was connected by land with the continent of Europe, and it is assumed that the first inhabitants came into these regions overland

The larger of the two islands is divided by mountains into three natural divisions—England, Scotland, and Wales—of which England, by reason of its nearness to the continent, has had the most stirring history and earliest attained a state of civilization. The gradual sinking of the lands connecting the British Isles with the continent, and of the coast line generally, has left the shore indented with many harbors suitable for shipping, while the numerous rivers, affording passage to sea-going crafts, have from earliest times accustomed the inhabitants to trade and commerce.

England proper may be divided into three parts. south there is a rolling country of hills, moors, and downs; in the north a series of rough mountains and moorland: between there is a great plain known as the Midlands. Scotland is divided into the northern highlands and southern lowlands. Ireland also has three regions: highlands in the south and north and, between, a central plain. Owing to the influence of the surrounding ocean and of the warm

winds blowing from the west, the isles enjoy a much milder, though foggier, climate than does the corresponding latitude in America.

Caesar's Invasions When Julius Caesar made his expeditions against the early inhabitants of England, he wished to punish them for giving aid to the Celtic tribes of northern France, against whom he was campaigning. The Celts of England were called Britons, or Gaels, and England was known as Britain. They had



STONEHENGE

On Salisbury Plain in southern England stands a mysterious ruin, called Stonehenge, which consists of a number of gigantic, upright stones, standing pillar-like in a circle. Originally horizontal stones were placed across these. Nothing is known concerning the architects of the building or as to its purpose. Some have conjectured that it is what is left of a great Druid temple.

entered the island centuries before written records were kept, and had conquered and intermarried with an earlier race of men whom they found in possession of the land. The Britons were a pastoral people, engaging also in a little agriculture, and with a few rude arts. Like their kinsmen in France, they had a complicated religious system, known as Druidism, with a regular priesthood and human sacri-Caesar made two unsuccessful campaigns in southern Britain, and finally withdrew to take up his struggle against Pompey.

The Roman conquest of Britain began in earnest about a The Roman century later, during the reign of the Emperor Claudius, and was completed within a generation by the great general

Conquest



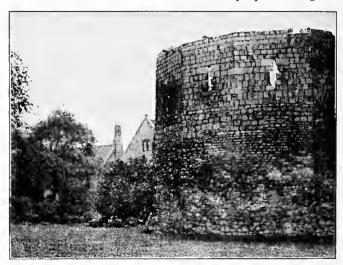
WALL OF HADRIAN (117-138)

It extends from the mouth of the Tyne to Solway Firth, 73½ miles; height 12 feet (with parapet, 16), thickness about 8 feet. Material, concrete, faced with square blocks. On the north a ditch, 10 to 15 feet deep, about 32 feet wide at top. Along the line, 18 walled camps, watch towers and "mile-castles" between.

Agricola, whom Domitian sent to conquer and govern the island. During his administration the island became thoroughly Roman in language, dress, religion, and customs, and for three hundred years thereafter the Britons enjoyed the Pax Romana (Roman Peace). The Romans were unable to conquer the wild tribes of the northern highlands, therefore they constructed mighty walls from sea to sea—the wall of

Hadrian over the Cheviot Hills, and the wall of Antonine at the Firth of Forth. To facilitate the movement of their troops and to promote commerce, the Romans constructed great highroads, like those on the continent. Portions of the walls and roads are still to be found in England. From the Firth of Forth to the English Channel, with the exception of the mountainous region of Wales, Roman country estates or fortified cities filled the land. The people of England

Results



MULTI-ANGULAR TOWER IN ROMAN WALL AT YORK

grew so accustomed to rely upon the Roman legions for protection that they lost their early warlike spirit. When the German tribes began to overrun the empire and the Roman soldiers were withdrawn to defend the imperial city, the Romanized Britons were unable to defend themselves against the same invaders and England became another of the Germanic states.

Characteristics of the Germans 67. Saxon England. — The writer who gives us the best contemporary picture of the customs of the Germans is the Roman Tacitus, a son-in-law of Governor Agricola, who lived

in the first century A.D. He says: "They have fierce blue eves, ruddy hair, large bodies, fit only for sudden exertion. They cannot endure heat and thirst, but are used to cold and hunger. Whenever not fighting, they pass much time in hunting, and still more in idleness, giving themselves up to feasting and to sleep. Their food consists of wild fruit. game, and sour milk. Every German, according to his means, receives his guest with a well-furnished table. In quenching their thirst they are not moderate, but indulge their love of drinking in a liquor fermented from grain and in wine. So fond are they of gambling with dice that they will stake the freedom of their own persons, the loser going into voluntary slavery. They delight in gifts from neighbors. such as choice horses, heavy armor, and jewellery, or even of cattle or grain." The Germans were in about the same stage Comparison of civilization as were the Iroquois Indians in the seventeenth of the Early century. Their political system was similar, for, like the Germans with the Iroquois Indians, they were divided into tribes and were led in war Indians by chiefs, and were influenced by priests who, like the Indian medicine-men, called upon the powers of nature. This resemblance is further shown in the following extract from Tacitus: "They have no cities, dwelling apart, and making no use of stone. It is a duty among them to adopt the feuds as well as the friendships of their family. They think it tame to plough the earth and to wait for the produce." Yet in one respect the earliest German settlers in England were in advance of the Indians. The Indians, it is true, had their councils for the discussion of matters which concerned the tribe, but these were unlike the assemblies of the German tribes, at which all the freemen of the tribe were entitled to take part in judging public affairs. These assemblies, or folk-moots, were more like the town meetings of New England, and probably were the germ from which have grown all the legislatures and courts of the English government and of our own.

The purpose of education among the Germans was to train warriors. Boys of noble birth associated themselves with men of strength and bravery and fought for them in war.

Germans with

The Comitatus, or Companion Custom

Religion of

In return they were supported by their leader and received a share in the booty taken under his guidance. This arrangement is known as the comitatus, or companion custom, and its common acceptance by the people of the early middle ages was one of two factors in the growth of feudalism.

The religion of the early Germans was a gloomy worship of



ELEVATION OF A SAXON KING

Like all German tribes, the Saxons signified the election of their king by raising him on their shields.

the powers of nature. Their principal gods were fighters, whose names have come down to us in the names of the days of the week. Woden (also spelled Odin), the All-father. and Thor, the Thunderer, are commemorated by Wednesday and Thursday. It was believed that the hero dying on the battlefield was carried off to Valhalla, the banquet hall of the gods, by the Valkyries, daughters of Woden, to enjoy an immortality of feasting and fighting. Yet even this was only temporary, for there was to come a Twilight of the

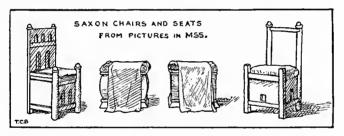
Gods, when the powers of evil would triumph and heaven and earth would pass away.

Legal Forms

The German tribes sometimes permitted a criminal to atone for his crime by paying a sum of money, called wergild, to the family of the injured person. The guilt of the accused was determined by compurgation or by ordeal.¹

¹ Somewhat later a third form of trial was instituted. This was the trial by combat, in which the accused and his accuser fought a duel,

Compurgation, or wager of law, was accomplished by having a number of men, called compurgators, take solemn oaths for or against the plea made by the accused. persons swore to his innocence than to his guilt he was acquitted, but the oath of a noble was worth as much as the oaths of several common citizens. The ordeal was a physical test of the accused, based on the belief that the gods would preserve the innocent man from harm. The accused was sometimes required to carry a red-hot iron in his hand. If after three days his hand appeared to be well, or at least healing satisfactorily, the man was declared innocent. Sometimes the accused was thrown into deep water. If he



sank he was considered innocent and was rescued, but if he floated on the water his guilt was believed.

After the withdrawal of the Roman legions various bands The Saxon of Germans belonging to the tribes of Angles, Jutes, and Conquest of Saxons ravaged the coasts and entered the service of A.D. Celtic princes. As soon as they were strong enough they conquered the natives and established German states. The Angles settled on the eastern coast and formed the kingdoms of East Anglia, Bernicia, Deira, and later penetrating into the Midlands, the border country between the remnants of the British and their own countrymen, established there a march state, Mercia. The Jutes in the southeast were known as Kentishmen and their kingdom. Kent. The tribes destined to become most prominent in English history were of and the case was decided in favor of the winner. Either side was permitted to select a champion to fight for it, as in the story of Ivanhoe.

England 417

the Saxon-folk. The Saxons established three kingdoms in the south, called after them Sussex (South Saxons), Essex (East Saxons), and Wessex (West Saxons). For over four hundred years the Anglo-Saxons, as the German tribes of England are generally called, were busy conquering the Britons, whom they called Welsh, or foreigners, and striving with each other for leadership. Edwin, king of Northumbria, the combined kingdoms of Bernicia and Deira, north of the Humber River, made his power felt throughout England, and built a strongly fortified city on the Firth of



INTERIOR OF ST. MARTIN'S CHURCH

A part of this church was a ruined temple, dating from the Roman occupation. Here Augustine and his monks carried on their mission in Kent.

Forth, which was called in his honor Edwin's City or Edinburgh. At another time Mercia all but won the supremacy. Finally, two hundred years after Edwin's death, Egbert, king of Wessex, was recognized by Saxons, Angles, and Celts as ruler of the island south of the Firth of Forth.

68. The Conversion of England. — The story is told of a bishop of the church, who afterward became the great Greg-

830 A.D.

ory, patron of missions, that, seeing some beautiful slaves The Mission for sale in the Roman market-place, he inquired of the merchant whence he procured them. The merchant replied: "Deira." Gregory is said to have made a pun in Latin upon the country of these Angles. "Truly," said he, "De

of St. Augus-

Conversion of

Northumbria

ira" (withdrawn from God's wrath, in that they had been brought to a Christian country). "And Angels, not Angles." Whether this story is true or not. Gregory, when he became pope, sent the monk Augustine on a mission to the Anglo-Saxons. Taking about forty companions. Augustine landed in Kent and won from King Ethelbert permission to establish there a church. About thirty vears after, this church of Canterbury had become strong enough to engage in further mission work. Accordingly one of its leaders entered Northumbria and presented the teachings of his faith before King Edwin, at a council called



ST. MARTIN'S CHURCH (CANTERBURY) The oldest church in England.

by the king to decide whether his people should adopt the new faith. The sayings of two of his wise men are helpful to an understanding of the character and beliefs of the Anglo-Saxons. Coifi, the high priest of the old religion, when asked for his opinion on Christianity, replied: "The religion that we have hitherto professed has no usefulness in it, for none of our folk have served in the worship of its gods with greater faithfulness than I, and yet there are many who are more prosperous than I." Another said, with the poetry of the Saxon mind: "The present life of man on earth, O King, seems to me, in comparison with eternity, like the swift flight of a sparrow through the room wherein you sit at meat in winter, with your friends and a good fire in the midst, whilst the storms of rain and snow beat without; the sparrow flying in at one door and immediately out at the other; for an instant he is safe from the wintry storm, but soon vanishes into the storm without. Even so appears the life of man. If this new teaching contains something more definite, it deserves to be followed."

The Council at Whitby 664 A.D.

As these monks from the south of England continued their mission work in the north, they came into conflict with other missionaries, who had been sent from Ireland and western Scotland. Long before this the famous St. Patrick had converted the Irish; but during the centuries since his death, the Roman church had developed new customs and beliefs. and these were neither accepted nor understood by the Irish monks. Accordingly the king of Northumbria called a council of the churchmen of both missions at Whitby, in order that he might hear both sides and decide which teachings to adopt. The Roman monks set forth their claim to have received their authority from the bishop of Rome, to whom, as the successor of St. Peter, had been given the keys of heaven. The Irish monks sadly confessed to the king that they were unable to claim such authority for their preaching, whereupon Edwin decided in favor of Roman Christianity. The importance of this decision was great. England was retained by the Roman church and gained materially from her association with the higher civilization of Rome and other Roman Catholic countries.

Literature soon began to flourish, churches and monasteries were built, monastic schools were established, and the monks brought in better methods in the cultivation of the soil and in manufacturing. In the monastery at Jarrow lived a monk, famed for his piety and great influence as the

"Venerable Bede," who was the first English historian. Bede and His "Church History of England" gives us much important information about early Saxon England. Caedmon, an uneducated but inspired servant in a monastery at Whitby, composed poems dealing with the stories of the creation and with other Bible narratives. Although both authors used the old Anglo-Saxon language in many of their works. Bede's chief work, the church history, was written in Latin, the official language of the church. The extracts giving the words of the old Saxons are taken from his history. The share of the Influence of church in the unification of England was very important. Theodore, another monk, organized bishoprics in all the

the Church



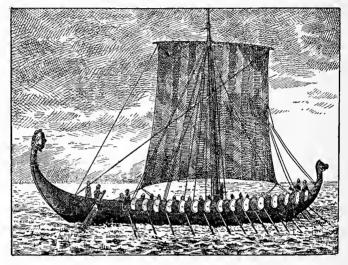
Anglo-Saxons on a Tourney

Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, and placed them all under the spiritual leadership of the mother church at Canterbury, thus preparing the different tribes for a political union when the leader appeared, strong enough to bring all England under his rule.

69. The England of Alfred the Great. — During the period The Northof the Christianizing of England (Angle-land), Northumbria. Mercia, and finally Wessex, had taken turns at holding a kind of overlordship over the other Anglo-Saxon states. A year after Charlemagne took the imperial title, Egbert, who had been educated at the school of the palace (see p. 145) and who had there studied states manship to some advantage.

men attack England

was recalled to Wessex. He soon forced the other states of England to acknowledge that he was king of the Anglo-Saxons. His son and grandson were forced to defend their kingdom against the Danes, other Northmen, who were at this time terrorizing all of northern Europe. The first invasions of these Vikings were made in their long ships along the coasts and up the rivers. After ravaging the country far and wide they retired with their booty to their



SHIP OF THE NORSE SEA-KINGS

After being buried for nearly a thousand years, this ship was found at Gokstad, in South Norway. In such a ship Eric the Red sailed to Greenland about 980 A.D.

878-886 A.D.

own land. Later, as in the case of their cousins the Normans of France, these piratical expeditions gave place to attempts at colonization. By the time of Alfred, Egbert's grandson, the Danes had won the greater part of the Anglican kingdoms and were threatening to crush the remainder of the Anglo-Saxons. Alfred proved to be a general of no mean ability, and although many times defeated, at

last stopped the Danish advance, and established a line from Line of the the Thames to Chester as the boundary between Danelaw, or the Danish kingdom, and Wessex.

Alfred is rightly considered the greatest of the early kings of England. Although he was unable to win back the Danelaw from the Danes, a work reserved for his successors, his influence on English history was greater than that of any other Anglo-Saxon. He ranks high as a military genius, as a promoter of learning and literature, and as a statesman. He organized an army system whereby one half of his soldiers would be in the field fighting the Danes, while the other half was engaged in raising the necessary food for the country. By this militia system he was enabled to carry on the unequal struggle against the Danes until he conquered and Christianized them. In imitation of Charlemagne's school he established a court school for the education of the young men of prominent families. He translated into vigorous Anglo-Saxon several extracts from classical authors. He aided in the writing of history by having accurate records kept year by year. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," which records the "Angloimportant events of English history from the ninth to the twelfth centuries, was begun during his reign. The following extract from the "Chronicle" shows the nature of the record kept and the difference between Alfred's and our own English speech:

So-called Treaty of Wedmore

The Reforms of Alfred the Great

Chronicle "

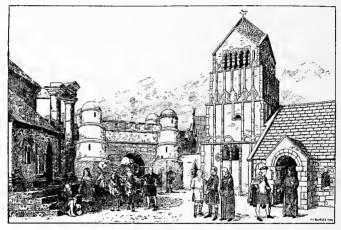
sona æster bæm com Hæsten mid LXXX scipa up on Temese-muban, Then soon after that came Hastings with 80 ships up within Thames'-mouth. æt Middeltun, ond se ober here æt Apuldre. ond worhte him geweore (works) and wrought him fortifications at Middletown, and the other army at Appledoor.

Alfred drew up a set of dooms, or judgments, for various offences, and carefully supervised the work of his judges in order to secure to all his subjects the greatest possible iustice.

In character Alfred was superior to all other rulers of his Alfred's Chartime. The following prayer attributed to him shows the acter sweetness and intensity of his religious convictions: "O Lord, Creator and Ruler of all things, I beseech Thee to guide

me better than I have deserved from Thee; direct me according to my need, better than I can; strengthen me against temptation; shield me from my enemies; and teach me to do Thy will, that I may love Thee above all things with a pure mind and pure body. Amen."

Saxon Government 70. The Close of the Saxon Period of English History.—
After the death of Alfred his descendants carried on the war against the Danes until Danelaw was reconquered for Saxon England. Alfred's grandson added the title "Lord of Britain" to the earlier title "King of

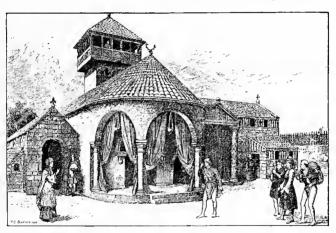


ENTRANCE TO AN ANGLO-SAXON WALLED TOWN

the Anglo-Saxons." In the Saxon kingdom the unit of government was the hundred, which corresponded closely to our town. Several families who lived in one neighborhood, usually about a hundred in number, met several times a year to transact business of common interest and to settle neighborhood disputes. These meetings, or hundredgemotes, were the sole agency of government within the hundred, and corresponded to the New England town meeting. A number of hundreds grouped together formed a shire or county, which, like the hundred, had its gemotes

or courts at which justice was dispensed and the laws of the king were proclaimed and explained. The shire differed from the hundred in that the king was represented in the former by an official, called the shire-reeve (later sheriff), who raised the taxes and enforced the royal laws. The noble families of the shire were represented by the alderman, who commanded the shire militia in war.

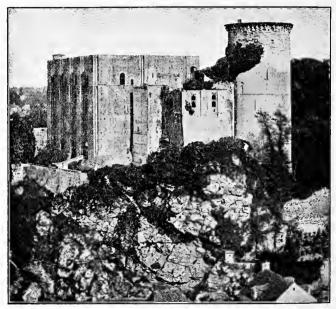
A century after Alfred's death a new movement of the Danish Con-Danes, directed by the government of Norway and Den-quest mark, began a more systematic attempt at conquest. For



RESIDENCE OF AN ANGLO-SAXON THANE

several years the Danes were bought off by the payment of an annual tribute, called Danegeld. This was levied upon their subjects by the Saxon rulers, and is the first instance of national taxation in English history. A vigorous Danish leader, Canute, king of Denmark, at last forced Ethelred the Unready to abandon England and to take refuge at the court of Normandy. Canute was recognized as king of England and proved an able, if somewhat severe ruler. By combining several shires he formed earldoms and concentrated the power of several aldermen in the hands of one earl.

Reign of Edward the Confessor Soon after the death of Canute the Saxon line was restored to the throne in the person of Ethelred's weak son Edward. The long reign of this king, who was called "Confessor" because of his preference for the life of a monk rather than that of a statesman, was marked by little of political significance, except the growth of the power of the great earldoms, which corresponded quite closely to the folk-duchies of the



CASTLE OF FALAISE

The birthplace, in 1027, of William the Conqueror, son of Duke Robert the Devil, and of Arlette, a tanner's daughter.

German empire. During this time religion flourished in England and monasteries and abbeys were erected in great numbers, among them the predecessor of the present famous Westminster Abbey. The Earls of Wessex and Northumbria became very powerful and each strove to be the real ruler of England. Harold, Earl of Wessex, the brother-in-

law and adviser of the childless King Edward, desired to succeed him on the throne. Edward, however, favored his cousin. William of Normandy, because his youth had been snent under the influence of the Norman court, and he surrounded himself with Norman courtiers. These so disgusted the witan, or council of great lords of England. that they exercised their right of electing Edward's successor by choosing Harold for their ruler.

Normandy

One hundred years after the reign of Charlemagne a band Origin of of Vikings had ravaged the coasts of northern France. order to gain the friendship of so powerful a foe, Charles the Simple granted their leader a dukedom in northern France. which was called, after them, Normandy. In the century that followed they developed into the most progressive of the French states, as they adopted the French language and customs. Their capital, Rouen, became the centre of religions and commercial activity for northern France. Their ruler, Duke William, Edward's cousin, believed he had a better claim to the English crown than had Harold. Furthermore, he alleged that Harold, while on a visit to his city, had most solemnly sworn to aid him in securing the crown.

> England by William

In 1066 William set forth for England with a large army Invasion of and landed at Hastings on the southern coast. William's enterprise was supported by the pope, who excommunicated Harold for breaking his oath of loyalty.1 Just previously Harold's treacherous brother, Toste, invaded Northumbria. Toste was in league with the king of Norway, who claimed the throne by right of descent from Canute. Hurrying north, Harold defeated and killed these invaders at the battle of Stamford Bridge, and then, although weary and poorly supplied, made a forced march southward to meet the advancing army of Duke William. Had he been fresh for this battle of Hastings, or Senlac, English history might have

¹ Since an oath was a solemn promise to God, the church claimed the right to try cases of oath-breaking. It was for this reason that the church courts for so long claimed superior authority to those of the state in cases involving contracts of all sorts, such as marriage, divorce, wills, etc.

been fundamentally changed; but as it was, his tired soldiers

The Conquest Harold Swearing upon the Relics (Taken from the Bayeaux Tapestry. gave way before the onslaught of the Normans, and Harold himself was killed.

71. Norman England. - Harold's death left England without a defender. William marched upon London, whereupon the witan, terrified, offered him the crown, which he accepted. During the next five years he was busy in all parts of England, completing the conquest and establishing a strong government. He showed wisdom as a ruler in several ways, particularly in his governmental policy and in his relations with the papacy. Instead of crushing out English forms of government, he wisely adopted most of the old system, thus rendering his control less irksome to the Saxons. It is true that he replaced Saxon lords with Norman lords and, by scattering their possessions in different parts of the island, prevented the growth of the large earldoms which had been such a menace to the power of the later Saxon kings; and yet he retained intact the shire system, the laws issued by the Saxon rulers, the royal power of taxation (Danegeld), and most important of all, he recognized the right of the

TERRA WILL DE BRAIOSE. the de Brasole well de pege Suscore Branans renur de pere le le se desta pe un hid. moso puna hisa.
Tra e un car la deno e una 74 units 7 vin bord cu un car los molin de xvin solo 7 pescaria de le denar. Valuro mi, lit, moso c. Colia. TERRA Willelmi Lover 1 the love an de reged Entroute. Tou anua de rage & · xx vi. W the lour and at pages on the pri hisa y una vi mado pri hisa y una vi Pra E V. car. In Sono Sim car. 7 1111. with 711. bord cu.i. car bin ferui 7 molin de res Colid. 7 mi. de pa. Silva Se. V. porc. Value Vin. let. 7 poft: c. fot. moso. Toc. fot. Tit W. vor due BORALE. Tou renur Julipupies ERIC Ho. de rege E. in alos op on Tomp. 111. hat june G. Pratemar. b. funcin with your bort aun car. 7x111. ac pa. Silva as daufuta. Valure. xt. fot. moso. xxx folks. Mit W. ver cos custo lou conur Jublise crit ho de pare le le p. a. hit. m. p. 11. hit dimes l'ya é un car. In drive una. 7111 with 7, m. cot cu. 1. card rdemit Ibi molin se kui fot, vi Sen 7 rd. de pa. Value Vi lit 7 water guif roll vi lit.

DOOMSDAY BOOK

Reduced facsimile of entries, the record of a survey of the population and resources of England in 1086.

upper classes of the people to have a share in the government, by continuing the witan. The witan, thereafter called the great council, in form similar to the Mayfields of the Frankish rulers, was summoned regularly three times each year, and later developed into parliament. Another in- Salisbury stance of his political wisdom was the Salisbury Oath.

Summoning all the landholders to meet on the plain at Salisbury, he required each of them to take an oath of allegiance to him. By this act he prevented the feudal relations in England from causing him and his successors the many difficulties which were experienced by the continental rulers. He also caused a census of the property owners of England to be made and recorded in a great book, Doomsday Book, in which is set down every piece of personal or real property possessed by his subjects. This list proved valuable to him as a basis for taxation.

Doomsday Book

Relations with the Church

In his relations with the church and with the papacy in particular, William showed that he intended to be the master, although he wished to further their interests where they did not conflict with his own. He was grateful to the church for supporting his cause during the conquest and gave great freedom of jurisdiction to the church courts, yet when Pope Gregory attempted to enforce in England the doctrine of the supremacy of the church in temporal matters, William declined to recognize this doctrine. (See p. 156.) In the Statutes of Winchester, so-called because issued at a great council held at that city, he stated that without royal consent no Englishman could be excommunicated, no pope should be recognized, no papal decree could be proclaimed in England, no church councils held or church laws enacted in his realm. In these laws William stated his own conception of the right relation between church and state, as opposed to that of the Dictatus.

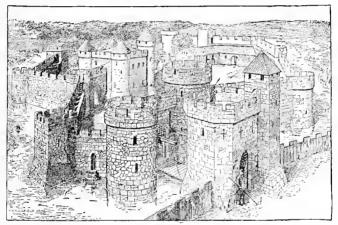
William and his Successors William the Conqueror was tall and heavily built. He had a violent temper and yet great power of decision, ability to command men, and a thorough knowledge of warfare. He was succeeded by his second son, William II, called Rufus because of his ruddy complexion, who was more violent than his father and lacked most of the Conqueror's good traits. He quarrelled with his barons to the verge of civil war and showed little of the statesmanship displayed by his father in the struggle with the church. His oppressive measures won him many enemies and he was murdered while hunting. His brother, Henry I, succeeded to the throne.





BRITISH ISLES AND NORTHERN FRANCE IN THE TIME OF WILLIAM I

72. The Effects of the Norman Conquest. — The effects (1) On the on England and Englishmen of the Norman Conquest were Race epoch-making. The race, language, government, architecture, commerce, and industry of England thereafter took on widely different aspects from those of the Anglo-Saxon period. At first the Normans and Saxons were slow to intermarry, the ruling classes being generally of the former race and the peasants of the latter; but, as the middle class



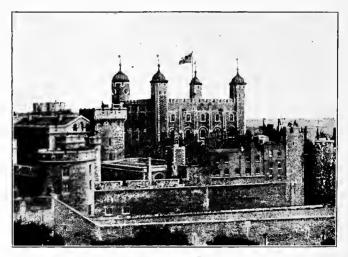
A NORMAN CASTLE

artisans from the manufacturing cities of northern France mingled with the English population, the two races gradually joined.

The immediate effect of the Conquest upon the language (2) On the spoken in England was to crowd out the Anglo-Saxon, sub- Language stituting for it the Norman-French. As the races mingled the Anglo-Saxon came back into its own, and its shorter and more vigorous words displaced many of the Norman-The majority of the words of modern English French. are of Anglo-Saxon origin. The chief work of the Norman-French in shaping our speech was to trim down the cumbersome declensions and conjugations with which the Anglo-

Saxon, in common with other Germanic languages, was loaded.

(3) On the Government Before William I organized the government of England, the power of the king was altogether dependent upon personal ability. Thereafter the king had definite political duties and status; the government was more strongly centralized; and the great council, or witan, met regularly and exerted more influence over the affairs of the nation. The



THE TOWER OF LONDON

As seen today. The square building in the centre was begun in the reign of William the Conqueror.

germ of the present English cabinet may be found in the group of advisers to the Norman rulers. This set of officials, known as the curia regis, or king's court, must not be confused with the great council of the kingdom composed of all the barons and higher clergy. The most important of these officers were the justiciar, whose judgments were second in authority only to those of the king; the chancellor, or secretary of state, keeper of the great seal; and the treasurer, whose duties are apparent. During the reign of Henry I these officers

made journeys throughout England to hear disputes and to enforce the king's law, and thus brought home to the people a sense of the reality of the king's authority.

As the Normans were a very devout people, it is not sur- (4) On Archiprising that their architects began the erection of the beautiful cathedral churches which are the pride of Englishmen today. To assist them in holding their newly won possessions, they built huge castles of stone, the ruins of which still impress the beholder. The building material of the Anglo-Saxons had been chiefly wood and plaster, whereas the Normans built of more enduring material. Hence they were able to bring architecture to a much higher point than that of the previous period.

The Norman artisans and the weavers from Flanders, the country now called Belgium, introduced many new crafts into England and greatly increased the commercial relations of that country with the continent. The Conquest, then, had far-reaching effects upon the development of English history, and upon that of our own country also, in that we have drawn heavily upon England for our institutions.

(5) On Industry and Commerce

73. Feudalism. — When the Germans invaded the Roman empire, they brought with them the comitatus, or companion custom (see p. 178), which in some respects resembled a custom, the benefice, which had grown up during the days of stress in the decline of the Western empire. The benefice was the custom of granting an estate to a monastery in return for the protection against attack afforded the owner by the monastery. The former owner continued to live on the estate and was entitled to the usufruct, products of the soil. in return for a nominal rent paid the monastery. The gradual combination of the comitatus and benefice as parts of one system of landholding and of mutual obligations between great and small landholders produced the feudal system. The German chieftains granted conquered lands to their com- Feudal Terms panions, who enjoyed the usufruct in return for a small feudal due or rent. This process is known as infeudation. and such land, called feudalized land, or a fief, became the central institution of feudalism. The companions were

Origin of Feudal Rela-

called vassals, and the grantor of the land the lord, or suzerain. The vassals frequently subdivided, or subinfeudated, their land. These subvassals owed allegiance to their immediate superiors only: hence, in time of war between a vassal and his suzerain, if the other vassals wished to remain neutral, the suzerain had no power to call to his defence the subvassals of the neutral vassals. A ruler was able to command the service only of those people who had taken an oath of allegiance to himself personally. This difficulty was avoided in England after the taking of the Salisbury Oath, but on the continent it often proved serious.

Sometimes a free landowner, fearing some neighboring lord, commended himself and his lands to the protection of a friendly and powerful lord of his neighborhood. To do this he gave the land to the great noble and received it back from him as a fief. This process was called commendation. Feudalism grew in the three ways just described; that is, by

infeudation, subinfeudation, and commendation.

Mutual Obligations of Lord and Vassal

A vassal owed certain things to his lord. He must do him homage, a ceremony indicating his obedience, performed by kneeling before his lord, his hands within those of his lord: he must obey his lord's summons to attend his court to give him counsel and aid; he must place his arms at the command of the lord in war; and he must render financial aid when called upon to do so. The three principal causes for financial aid were for the purpose of meeting the expenses attendant upon the knighting of the lord's son, for the eldest daughter's dowry, or for the lord's ransom if captured by the enemy. On the other hand the lord owed many things to the vassal. He owed him protection in war and justice in peace. He was responsible for the widows and orphans of his vassals. The vassal looked to the lord for the maintenance of law and order and the security of property.

Importance of Feudalism From each of several points of view feudalism was one of the most important institutions of the middle ages. The primary duty of a vassal to his lord was military service; that of the lord to a vassal protection in time of war. Hence,

from the military standpoint, feudalism was the basis for all military organization. The financial importance of feudalism lay in the system of aids and other payments of money or personal services. The weakness of the central government in feudal times prevented the collection of regular taxes, but the feudal system provided for definite collection of money for government purposes; hence its importance. The feudal system also furnished practically the only bond of union in the disordered states of western Europe. The great feudal lords formed the central administrative power. They held courts, issued laws, punished crime, and coined money; in short, performing those administrative duties undertaken by the modern state. Socially the feudal system was, with the church, the all-powerful moulder of the customs of the medieval people. It imposed upon the people two great ideals: first, that of reciprocal service and duty: second, the ideal of chivalry, with its high standard of personal honor and respect for womanhood.

74. Summary of Early English History. — Little known to Europe until the Christian era, England began to play an important part in history during the Roman empire. When the Romans withdrew to defend Rome, the Britons were conquered by the Angles and Saxons. The Anglo-Saxons developed their institutions on British soil and laid the foundations for our language, customs, and laws. The Danes added a vigorous element to the population and were responsible for the unsettled condition of the country which made the Norman Conquest possible. Duke William of Normandy invaded England and after ten years' intermittent warfare completed the Conquest. The Normans established a strongly centralized government, promoted commerce with the continent of Europe, and broadened English life and institutions.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

On a map of Europe show the movements of the various Germanic tribes mentioned in this chapter. On a map of England locate Stonehenge, London, Chester, York, Canterbury, Edinburgh, Whitby; show

the line of Hadrian's Wall, Antonine's Wall, Treaty of Wedmore; indicate the following sections of the island: Wales, Strathclyde, Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Kent, Sussex, Essex, Wessex. On a map of northern Europe show the dominions of William the Conqueror; locate Rouen, Bayeux, Hastings, Stamford Bridge, London, Bec, Paris; indicate the Seine and Thames rivers.

(The following questions may be studied in Beard's Introduction to the

English Historians: Macmillan. Page references are given.)

Contrast the Conquest of Gaul and Britain, p. 6, § 1. Character of Anglo-Saxon Conquest, 8, § 2. British and Roman Survivals, 9, § 3. Two Results of the Conquest, 10. Mission of Augustine, 12, § 1. Conversion of Northumbria, 15, § 2. Synod of Whitby, 17, § 3. Theodore and the Church, 21, § 4. Baeda (Bæde), 23, § 5. Alfred the Graat and English Learning, Chapter IV. Anglo-Saxon Government, 55, §§ 3, 5. Coronation of William the Conqueror, 61, §§ 1 to 5. Anglo-Norman Feudalism, 73, §§ 1–3.

(The following topics are based on Cheyney's Readings in English

History. Page references are given.)

Description of Britain in ancient times, 2-6. Description by Modern Writers, 6-7. Customs of the Britons, 15-18. Decay of Britain after Departure of Legions, 32-34. The Anglo-Saxon Race, 40-46. Story of Caedmon, 53-56. Alfred the Great: Boyhood, 63-64; Wars, 64-67; Reforms, 67; Dooms, 80-82. Duties of Loids and Vassals, 132, 135. The Battle of Senlac (Hastings), 98-101.

GENERAL TOPICS

Write in your note-books a comparison of Anglo-Saxon and Norman characteristics. Draw the ground plan of a feudal castle. What amusements had the people of England in the eleventh century? Describe the social life of the better Saxons of this period as viewed by Scott in Ivanhoc. (Although the book professes to deal with England in the twelfth century, the life of the people described was that of the eleventh.) Read the description of the Roman Wall in Kipling's Puck of Pook's Hill; also of the Winged Hats (Northmen). Methods of Agricola in his conquest of Britain.

REFERENCE READINGS

Robinson, Feudalism: Western Europe, pp. 104–119; Readings, Chapter IX; also Emerton, Mediaval Europe, pp. 478–508.

Colby, Source-Book of English History, pp. 1-53: Longmans. Kendall, Source-Book of English History, pp. 1-55: Macmillan.

Cheyney, Short History of England, pp. 1-119: Ginn and Co.; also Readings in English History, pp. 1-120.

West, Ancient World, Part II, pp. 485-490: Ginn and Co., Ancient Germans.

ENGLAND IN THE EARLY MIDDLE AGES I

Beard, Introduction to the English Historians, pp. 1-77: Macmillan. (Valuable selections from the great historians.)

Shepherd, Historical Atlas: Physical Map of British Isles, p. 49; Roman Britain, p. 51; Settlements of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, p. 51; British Isles in the ninth and tenth centuries, p. 60; Dominions of Canute, p. 64; Dominions of William I, p. 65.

CHAPTER X

ENGLAND UNDER THE PLANTAGENETS

Henry I

75. Henry II and the Re-establishment of a Strong Government. — Henry I's policy favored the mingling of races in England, and by his marriage to Edith, a descendant of Alfred the Great, he won the support of many of the Saxons who had chafed under the tyranny of William Rufus. His promise of a liberal government, contained in a charter granted by him at his accession, augured a continuance of the strong government established by his father; while the friendly manner in which the question of investiture was settled in England nearly a generation before the Concordat of Worms (see p. 158) promised more cordial relations between The Civil War church and state. Yet the death of Henry plunged England

into a state bordering on anarchy. A civil war began between his daughter, Matilda, and her cousin, Stephen of Blois, over the right to the throne, and during the eighteen years that followed, the governmental system went to pieces, the great feudal lords usurped the king's powers, and new questions of dispute arose between church and state. Finally the forces of Stephen were defeated by those of Matilda's faction and forced to agree to the Treaty of Wallingford, in which Henry of Anjou. Matilda's son, was recognized as the heir to the English throne.

Treaty of Wallingford

Henry II's Reforms

(1) Restoration of Order

(2) The Courts

When Henry II became king he had first to subdue the rebellious barons, who, contrary to the law, had erected strong castles without the king's consent. These Henry besieged and destroyed, and their owners he fined, banished, or beheaded. Thus his power was felt throughout the land. He improved the system whereby the royal judges went from one important town to another to try cases. These circuit judges brought the king's justice directly to the people and saved the expense which the older system involved. During this reign may be found the beginnings of trial by jury. The Assize of Clarendon provided that a jury of twelve men, selected from the locality in which the court was being held. should present to the judge the names of all persons suspected of having committed crime. In this law may be found the and of the origin of the modern grand jury. The judgments handed down by the circuit courts made up the common law of England, and on that account are of the utmost importance as precedents for our own courts.

In the Assize of Arms, another important law, Henry II (3) The ordered every freeman of England, whether noble, knight, or commoner, to furnish himself with a complete set of arms and equipments for war, suitable to his rank. In this way Henry organized a militia ready to take the field when called upon by the king. Many of Henry's constructive measures (4) Taxation were intended to increase the king's revenues. He enforced the payment of certain feudal dues, such as reliefs, or inheritance taxes, paid by an heir upon assuming his estate. He also levied a tax called scutage, in lieu of military service, which enabled him to purchase the assistance of mercenary troops when needed.

76. Henry II and Thomas Becket. - In his relations with Constitutions the church, Henry II showed the same disposition to get more power into his hands. During the period of anarchy the church courts had assumed jurisdiction over many matters that are now controlled by the state. Henry begrudged the church the rich fees which poured into its coffers; furthermore, as clergymen accused of crime claimed trial in the church courts because these courts were composed of men of their own order, Henry felt that the church did not give sufficient recognition to the rights of his government. At length he called a great council at Clarendon (1164) to settle what matters should thereafter pertain to the church and what to the state. This council drew up the Constitutions of Clarendon, reissuing the Statutes of Winchester of the reign of William I (see p. 102), and including new limitations upon the jurisdiction of the church courts, such as forbidding appeals from the English court to that of Rome

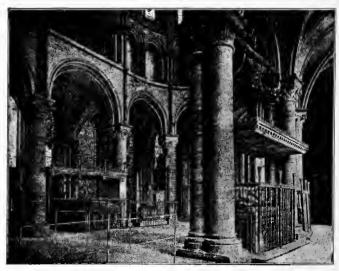
Origin of Trial by Tury

Common Law

of Clarendon

and providing proper punishment for clergymen convicted of crime.

Thomas Becket The quarrel between Henry II and his great archbishop of Canterbury over these provisions of the Constitutions of Clarendon is one of the most thrilling and tragic stories in history. Before his elevation to the primacy Thomas Becket had served Henry in various government offices, among them that of chancellor, and had been one of the most



CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL

Here, east of the High Altar, Becket's shrine, or tomb, was erected. Until the Reformation it was a place of pilgrimage to which came thousands, not only from England, but also from Europe. It was despoiled by Henry VIII. Becket was murdered in one of the transepts of the cathedral.

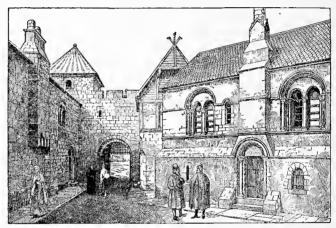
worldly of them all; but after he had reluctantly accepted the archbishopric he changed suddenly into an austere, high-minded clergyman, full of enthusiasm for the church, and as eager to promote its temporal power as Gregory VII had been. While chancellor he had been a warm friend of Henry, but as archbishop he was unwilling to recognize that the king had the powers over the church stated in the Constitutions of Clarendon. Instead, he appealed to the pope to annul these laws, and thus violated one of their most important provisions. By this appeal he defied the power of the king, and as England became unsafe for him he was forced to take refuge at the court of the French king. who was hostile to Henry.1

Six years later, a temporary reconciliation having been Murder of made with the king, Becket returned to England, where he Becket showed that he had not changed his ideas concerning the powers of the church, by excommunicating without the king's consent the church officials who disagreed with him. Henry is said to have exclaimed wrathfully, "Will no one rid me of this pestilent priest!" whereat, taking the saying of a moment of passion for royal permission, four knights set forth for Canterbury, where they murdered the archbishop before his own altar. Henry II expressed the utmost remorse and horror at the deed, and in atonement relinquished several of the rights he had claimed and against which Becket had protested. The English people believed the murdered archbishop a saint, and thousands made annual pilgrimages to his tomb at Canterbury.

77. Struggle between the Angevins and Capetians for Problems of Supremacy in France. - While the kings of England had the Capetian been overthrowing opposition at home and building up a strong government, the French kings had found the feudal barons almost too strong for them. William I's conquest of England and the Salisbury Oath had made him the master of English soil and the absolute lord of his great vassals; whereas in France, after the decline of the Carlovingian family, the great landholders had chosen one of their own o87 A.D. number, Hugh Capet, Count of Paris, to be their ruler, and although he and his descendants were able men, the barons of France felt no such dependence upon the Capetians. For this reason the French kings had a harder struggle to win

¹ Henry had recently married the Duchess Eleanor of Guienne and Gascony, whom the French king had divorced a short time before.

true sovereignty over their realm than did the Norman rulers of England. Furthermore, for a hundred years it was a serious problem whether or not some French lord, of lands wealthier and more extensive than the hereditary possessions of the Capetian family, would overthrow its shadowy sovereignty and establish a new dynasty. Among the powerful vassals of France were the dukes of Normandy and the counts of Flanders and of Brittany in the north, and the dukes of Guienne and of Burgundy in the south. Between their possessions were a number of small states, among them the



AN ENGLISH STREET IN THE REIGN OF HENRY II

territory of France ruled by the Capetians. When the dukes of Normandy conquered England, their French fiefs, for a time, seemed of second importance to the island realm; and with these powerful vassals removed from active intrigue in French politics, the French kings must have felt encouraged in their struggle for real sovereignty.

This hope was for a time seriously threatened by the growth of a new combination of vassal states hostile to the French king.^I Henry II was recognized as ruler of England by the Treaty of Wallingford (see p. 200) and inherited also from

¹ For Angevin dominions in France, see map facing p. 159.

Possessions of Henry II his mother lordship over Normandy and Maine, and from his father Anjou and Touraine. By his marriage to Eleanor, the divorced wife of the French king, he gained control over her hereditary lands of Guienne, Gascony, and Poitou; and by conquest he held Brittany and the Irish Pale, or eastern coast of Ireland. He also forced the king of Scotland to recognize him as overlord. Henry's possessions in France overshadowed those of the French king, while the total Angevin 1 domain formed a state of imposing size. Yet for the lands in France, Henry was nominally the vassal of King Philip Augustus (the same who later led the Third Crusade). Philip was able to defend himself against the ambition of so powerful a vassal chiefly because Henry intrusted the administration of his French possessions to his sons. Philip craftily stirred up jealousy between these brothers, Richard, Geoffrey, and John, and prevented them from acting together or with the old King Henry.

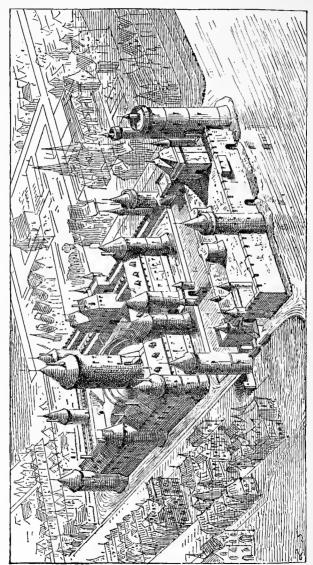
The last years of the reign of Henry II were made bitter by the quarrels which he had with his own family. He died in France while on a campaign against his sons, perhaps the most unhappy man of his time. He had brought order out of anarchy in England, he had governed his realm wisely, if strictly, but he had failed to govern his own family, and he must have foreseen the doom of its fortunes in France. Before many years had passed Philip had won back many of the French fiefs governed by Henry.

During the reigns of Philip Augustus and his son, Louis Centralization VIII, the domain of the French kings was greatly increased of the French at the expense of the English rulers and of other vassals, and the sovereignty of the king of France over his powerful landholders was established. The administrative system was also much improved. Philip re-established the missi system of Charlemagne (see p. 145) by sending out Baillis to inspect the work of the king's officers. His grandson, Louis IX. called St. Louis because of the saintliness of his character,

¹ The term Angevin is applied to the noble family of Anjou, whose badge was the cornflower (plantagenet). Henry II and his descendants are called Angevins or Plantagenets.

Close of the Reign of Henry II

Monarchy



VIEW OF PARIS IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

organized the king's court into three divisions. The king's council had charge of administration, a second division took care of the finances, and the third branch, called parlement, acted as the supreme court of France. This systemization of the government made it easier for the king to carry on the affairs of state, and it increased the respect felt by the people of France for their ruler.

Henry II was succeeded by his son, Richard I, who spent Richard Lionall but a few months of his ten years' reign fighting on the heart continent or in the Third Crusade. During his reign England gained some slight experience in self-government because of the extended absences of the king. Richard possessed much of his father's military ability, but lacked his determination and strength of character; hence he has been well called "Richard-Yea-and-Nay." He is more familiarly known as Cœur-de-Lion, or Lionheart, because of his brave exploits in the Crusades. He was killed in battle shortly after his rescue from the prison of the Emperor Henry VI. (See p. 160.)

The story of "Ivanhoe" gives a fairly accurate description Loss of the of the character of Richard's successor, his brother John, one of the worst rulers England has ever had. John was suspected of the murder of his brother Geoffrey's son. Prince Arthur, in order to clear his own way to the English throne. He had, moreover, abducted a ward of the French king. For these crimes John was commanded to appear at his suzerain's court to stand trial, and upon his failure to attend. Philip Augustus declared John's fiefs forfeited to the French crown.² Thus was decided the rivalry between the Angevins and the Capetians in France.

French Fiefs

78. Magna Carta. — John did not realize that he had John's really lost his heritage in France, and marshalled his forces for a war. But when he attempted to lead the barons

Ouarrel with his Barons

¹ The difference between the parlement, or judicial court of France. and the English parliament, or law-making body, must be carefully understood.

² Only Guienne and Gascony remained to the English rulers of their once wide realm in France.

out of England, they rebelled, under the leadership of Stephen Langton, Pope Innocent III's nominee for the archbishopric of Canterbury. (See p. 166.) John was forced to sign at Runnymede, in 1215, a written promise, known as the Great Charter, or Magna Carta, to deal justly with them in the future. This charter forms an important part of the British constitution and has been called the Bible of English liberty. The following provisions of Magna Carta are of especial importance: first, no freeman shall be imprisoned or punished, except by the legal judgment of his peers (equals); second, justice shall not be delayed or sold; third. no scutage or aid (except the three great aids) shall be imposed without the consent of the great council; fourth, the towns and cities of England shall enjoy all the rights conferred upon them by the king of England; fifth, merchants coming and going through England shall have the protection of the government in carrying on their business.

Terms of Magna Carta

Significance of these Terms The first insured a fair trial for an accused person, and in later times was re-enacted to prevent tyrannical rulers from holding in prison without trial persons who had offended them. The second was a guarantee of the integrity of the English courts. The third is the first statement in English history of the principle involved in the rallying cry of the American Revolution, "No taxation without representation." The fourth protected the towns in the rights stated in charters won from the king, and thus enabled them to become the teachers of the people along the lines of self-government. The fifth recognized the rights of the merchant class, hitherto oppressed and robbed by the feudal lords.

Importance of Magna Carta Some modern authorities believe that too much importance has been attached in the past to these promises made by John, and argue that they were made to one class of people only, the upper class, and also that John's immediate successors disregarded them in whole or in part. Yet it must not be overlooked that Magna Carta represents the result of a revolt against the arbitrary rule of a cruel and corrupt king, and that all classes were finally benefited by it, because it furnished the source for later and more successful attempts

to obtain popular government. "The Great Charter is the first great public act of the nation after it has realized its own identity, the consummation of the work for which unconsciously kings, prelates, and lawyers have been laboring for a century. There is not a word in it that recalls the distinction of race and blood, or that maintains the differences of English and Norman law. It is in one view the summing up of a period of national life, in another the starting point of a new period, not less eventful than that which it closes." (Stubbs.)

79. The Birth of the House of Commons. - John's son Influence of and successor, Henry III, was very fond of foreigners, especially the people of southern France and of Flanders. England suffered considerably from civil warfare due to the weakness of Henry's character, yet considerable gain was made along artistic, political, and commercial lines. The people of southern France were the most artistic and literary of the time. Their troubadours, or poet minstrels, composed beautiful poems and witty stories, and their architects brought into England the new Gothic style of building which, in gracefulness of line and in beauty of decoration. was greatly superior to that of Norman times.

The civil wars between Henry III and his barons led to the calling together of the first English parliament, first in the modern sense in which representatives of the common people share with the nobles in law-making. Simon de Montfort, son of the Albigensian Crusader (see p. 164), the leader of the barons, issued a call for two knights from each shire and two citizens from each town of England to meet in a great council with the representatives of the lords spiritual and temporal. Although this innovation was not made a regular custom until the reign of Henry's son, we may say that the House of Commons was born in this reign.

Henry's subjects complained that he was too much under Growth of the the influence of foreign churchmen. He gave them land upon which to found monasteries, and filled the state offices with French prelates. The Carthusian monks built up the sheep-raising industry in the eastern part of England, and

Henry III's

Wool Trade

England speedily became the greatest wool-producing nation of Europe, furnishing the bulk of the wool imported by the manufacturing towns of Flanders. This trade greatly benefited England from a commercial standpoint and exerted a profound influence upon the later history of England. Kings found that by laying an export tax on wool they could obtain an income which would render them independent of parliament, and yet parliament later claimed and exercised almost complete control over internal taxation, basing its claim upon the third quoted clause of Magna Carta. The impor-



A FIGHT BETWEEN ARMED AND MOUNTED KNICHTS OF THE TIME OF HENRY III

tance of the wool trade is shown by the fact that the presiding officer of the House of Lords sits upon a cushion stuffed with English wool, to show that the dignity and power of English commercial supremacy was founded upon this industry. Even today the office of chancellor is occasionally called the "woolsack" in memory of the long-lost monopoly.

The English Justinian 80. Reign of Edward I. — The son of Henry III is called the English Justinian and the Hammer of the Scots. Following the example of Justinian (see p. 128), that famous

¹ The wool trade led to a long and disastrous war with France, which began in the reign of Henry III's great-grandson and lasted for over a hundred years. (See p. 242.)

Roman law-codifier. Edward issued many important stat- Statute of utes. He ordered that the highways should be kept clear from underbrush at each side, in order that travel might be made easier and safer from the attacks of highwaymen. who had formerly lain in wait in the shadow of the roadside bushes.

Another law forbade the granting of lands to the church Statute in order to escape the king's tax-gatherers, a practice that had "Mortmain" added some of the fairest of English estates to the non-taxable lands of the church, and which had materially diminished the king's taxes on real estate. By the statute of "Hue-and-Police Cry and Watch-and-Ward" he required all men to assist in the capture of criminals, and ordered each town to provide suitable police protection.

Measures

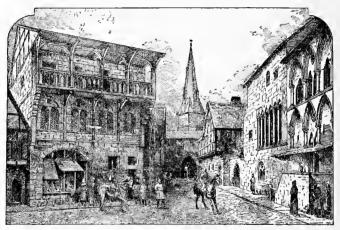
During his reign we find an export tax on wool, called Financial poundage, and an import tax upon wine, called tonnage. These are the first instances of national tariffs. To increase his revenues he required every man whose property was worth about twenty pounds or more a year to enter the rank of knighthood or else pay a heavy fine. This custom was called distraint of knighthood. In order to please his barons. who were heavily indebted to the Jews, he issued an order banishing that race from England, and received in return many valuable gifts from his nobles.

Scotland

The attempts of former rulers of England to conquer all Conquest of the territory of the British Isles had won only the Irish Pale and a shadowy overlordship over Scotland. After a series of difficult campaigns in the mountain fastnesses of Wales. Edward secured the recognition of his son as Prince of Wales. a title ever since borne by the heir to the British throne. During his reign a dispute arose between the families of Baliol and Bruce over the succession to the throne of Scotland. Asserting the right of overlordship, gained in the Treaty of Falaise between Henry II and the Scotch king. Edward judged the merits of the various contestants at Norham and awarded the crown to Baliol, whom he expected to be able to control. When Baliol showed signs of an independent spirit, Edward removed him and proclaimed the

annexation of Scotland to England. During the last years of his reign he was greatly disturbed by efforts to regain independence for Scotland, led first by Sir William Wallace, a Scotch border patriot, and later and more successfully by Robert Bruce, a descendant of the former claimant.

Reign of Edward II After Edward's death his son, the weak and incompetent Edward II, was defeated at the battle of Bannockburn in 1314 by Bruce and forced to acknowledge the independence of Scotland. After a disastrous reign of 20 years, Edward II

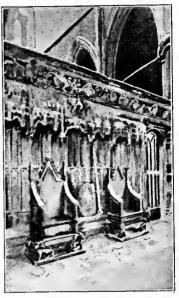


STREET IN THE TIME OF EDWARD I

was deposed, with the approval of parliament, in the name of his son and imprisoned in a tower, where shortly after he was murdered. This reign is important constitutionally because during it the knights and burgesses met apart from the nobles, thus setting a precedent for the two-chambered, or bicameral, legislature which is such a familiar feature of nearly all modern constitutional governments, including those of our state and nation.

81. Summary of Plantagenet England. — Henry II weakened the power of the feudal lords and established a good system of courts, which enabled him to maintain order and to make the royal power felt throughout England. He made a strong effort to extend his authority over the church, but was forced to make concessions after the murder of his former favorite, Becket. The French Capetian house struggled

for over a century to curb the power of the great landholders of France, of whom the English king was the chief. Owing to dissensions in the family of Henry II and to the weak character of John, Philip Augustus was able to bring under his own rule several of the great fiefs. Thereupon the French rulers proceeded to consolidate and reform the government of France. In addition to losing the French territory John was defeated in a struggle with the papacy and with his barons, and as a result the English world was given Magna Carta, which checked the growing absolutism of the monarch. During the long reign of Henry III, England's greatest industry began to assume importance, and great changes took place in the intellectual and artistic life of the



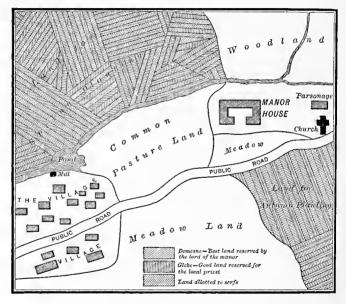
CORONATION CHAIR, WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Under the seat of the coronation chair rests the famous Stone of Scone. This stone on which the Scotch kings were crowned was taken to England by Edward I. With the accession to the English throne of James VI of Scotland, and the union of the two countries, a Scotch King was once more crowned on the Scone.

country. By the reign of Edward I, England was emerging into the light of the modern period, in language, race, and the outward elements of government. Edward, as the

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gained. One list reads as follows: "John of Cayworth holds a house and thirty acres of land, and owes yearly two shillings at Easter and Michaelmas [September 29], and he owes a cock and two hens at Christmas. He should harrow for two days during the Lenten sowing with a man and his own horse and harrow; he should provide one man for two days' mowing his lord's meadow, and gather in that same hay which he has cut; he should in autumn gather beans or oats for two days



PLAN OF A MEDIEVAL MANOR

with a cart and three horses of his own; and he should carry wood from the lord's wood land, as far as the manor house, for two days in summer with a cart and three horses of his own."

Manor Life

While the man performed these services his wife and daughters aided in the spinning, weaving, and other necessary work at the manor house. In all, they worked for the

benefit of the lord more than half the time, and were obliged to labor from daybreak to dusk in order to earn the coarse fare of black bread and beans upon which they subsisted.



PLOUGHING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

The life of the serf was lacking in almost all the comforts and pleasures that make up so large a part of the life of the



HARROWING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

modern workman; yet it must not be supposed that he was entirely unhappy. Much amusement was gained from the



REAPING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

rude merrymakings which occasionally brought the people of the manor together, and it must be remembered that a man cannot miss a happiness of whose existence he has never dreamed.

Free Tenants

Not all the peasant farmers were serfs; some were free tenants, whose dues were paid principally in money, and who were free from many of the exasperating restraints imposed on serfs, and therefore had more interest in getting ahead in the world by improving their methods of cultivating the



THRESHING IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

fields and by inventing better implements with which to work.

Two Reasons for the Decline of Serfdom

(1) Growth of Population

As the population increased, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, it became constantly more difficult for the serf, who employed the old methods, to produce enough to satisfy the demands of his lord and at the same time to support his family. The serfs suffered, on this account, from famine, and from the pestilence which almost always follows famine; and driven to desperation, they revolted from carrying on life in the same old way. Many of them secured recognition as free tenants, paid their lord in money

instead of in service, and thus passed gradually from the servile relation into the modern one of renter.

That they were enabled to do this was due to the great (2) Increase increase in the amount of money in circulation, caused by the revival of commerce and by the growth of manufacturing in the towns. When the townsmen turned themselves more and more to manufacturing and abandoned their attempts at producing what food they needed for their own use, it became necessary for them to buy of the manors the grain

of Money in Circulation



DINNER AT THE HOME OF A NOBLE LADY IN ENGLAND IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY

and other foods there grown. They paid the manor folk in the money which began at this time to flow into the towns in return for the articles made there and sold abroad. The lords were glad to obtain money instead of service from the serfs, because with it the means was given to purchase the luxuries and other articles which their manors did not produce.

83. Life in the Towns. — Medieval towns originated in Origin of various ways. Some were a continuation of town life under Medieval the Roman empire; others grew out of manor villages; in

Towns

some instances they were founded by other towns for trading centres, or by landowners for the sake of the added revenue to be gained from taxing the citizens; and some grew up around important monasteries and castles. The more important towns were protected by walls and other defences against invaders, and as the town increased in population the quaint buildings, with stories each projecting over its lower neighbors, darkened and crowded the alley-like streets, which turned and twisted their unpaved way, filled with mud and filth and the débris of garbage. Few towns had

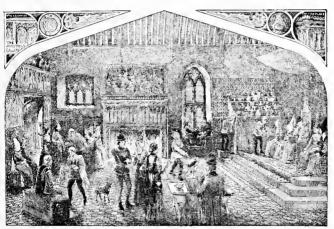


STREET IN THE TIME OF RICHARD III

any system of sewers, the dirty water from the houses frequently splashing down upon the heads of unsuspecting passers-by. The lighting systems were so feeble, where any such thing was attempted, that when night fell the shops were all shuttered tightly, all doors were closed and barred, and even the streets themselves were closed off by heavy chains, because of the dangerous condition of the times, when footpads and cutthroats abounded in the darkness. "The houses of the richer merchants vied in comfort and luxury with the castles of the nobles. At the back there were gardens

filled with flowers, and the best room opened upon these Description gardens. Each shopkeeper hung out his sign with some of a Mediedevice representing his trade, for few could read. At dawn from Dr. the shutters were taken down and the streets were filled with Munro, "A people. Venders of food and dealers in miscellaneous articles went about crying their wares. Fights between the Ages" apprentices of the different trades were frequent. Each industry had its own quarter, from which the workmen would sally forth to attack those of another quarter, or in which they could in turn barricade themselves."

val Town History of the Middle



A RECEPTION IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD IV

From a position of practical servitude to the lord, upon Growth of whose lands they were situated, the towns advanced by the end of the middle ages to one of almost complete political independence. This revolution was accomplished by the pressure brought to bear upon the lord by his townsmen when he wanted money. To secure funds for a military Town Charventure, or for the gratification of other whims, the lord was often induced to sell to a town certain rights embodied in a town charter. As time went on, other rights were gained by the town, such as exemption from certain forms of feudal

Political Independence of the Towns

taxation and greater liberty of self-government. The charters were granted to an organization of the leading men of the town, called a commune, which was much like the Committee of Public Safety organized just before the Revolutionary War in Boston and other American cities to resist the British.

Merchant Gilds

Craft or Trade Gilds

Often the leading citizens engaged in trade formed what is called a merchant's gild, which resembled the merchants' associations or boards of trade of our cities. These merchant gilds usually controlled the government of the commune. Other gilds known as craft or trade gilds, which developed somewhat later in medieval times, were composed of all the men engaged in particular trades. These resembled our trade unions, in that they were formed to promote particular industries, by increasing prices and maintaining standards of excellence in workmanship; but they differed widely from unions in that they were composed of both employers and employees of that trade. The craft gilds governed their members by an elaborate system of rules and exerted both a good and a harmful influence upon commerce and industry. The rule requiring all the products of their workmen to be up to a certain standard was in the main a good one; yet it prevented the creation of still more beautiful and useful articles. Another rule, governing the length of service necessary before admittance into all the rights and privileges of the gild, tended to make careful workmen, but at the same time to discourage many from attempting to improve their lot in life.

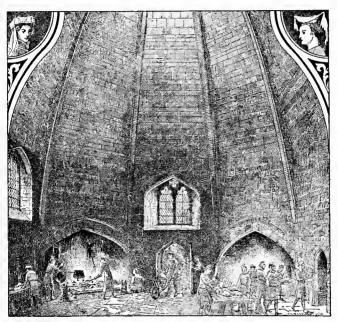
Gild System

The gild system may be briefly described as follows. There were three grades of workmen: the apprentice, the journeyman, and the master workman. After an apprenticeship of from three to ten years, the workman entered the grade of journeyman; that is, he was sent forth from his own shop to visit those of other master workmen, in order that he might learn their methods and designs. After a suitable time as journeyman, if the other masters of his craft were willing, he might set up a shop of his own and employ other apprentices and journeymen. Perhaps the greatest service

rendered by the gild was the added strength given the cause of town liberty by these groups of men who had learned to work together in a common cause.

84. Medieval Commerce. - As the gilds developed, commerce became of greater importance. The peoples of the East were interested in marketing some of their spices

Obstacles to Commerce

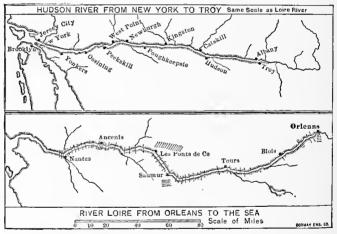


FOURTEENTH CENTURY KITCHEN IN ENGLAND

The existing abbot's kitchen at Glastonbury is the authority for this drawing. The building is about 36 feet square with four fireplaces.

and silks in western Europe, and also found uses for some of the Western manufactures, such as woollen goods. Commerce and industry interact on each other; yet commerce grew very slowly because of the many hindrances to it. The idea of gain from commerce was regarded with displeasure Usury by the medieval church, whereas the cultivation of the soil

and the development of the business of renting land were held to be highly proper. We now understand that gold is a commodity, and can be bought and sold just as well as other goods, and that interest on money is merely the profit of such transactions; but in the middle ages the taking of interest on money seemed sinful, hence interest, or usury, was forbidden to all church members. The medieval churchman did not care for the souls of the Jews, so that oppressed and wonderful people were permitted and even encouraged to take up the business of lending money out at



Comparative Maps Showing the Hindrances to Medieval Commerce

The lines across the Loire show where tolls were collected. If the old toll system were in force today we would pay fifty tolls going from New York City to Albany — the same distance as from Nantes to Orleans. interest, and were forced to protect their loans and safeguard their property by every possible means. It is not strange that Shakespeare made Shylock the type of man that he did. This very persecution made of the Jewish race a people extremely gifted along financial lines and destined to that high position in the economic world that they today possess. Another familiar feature of present commercial life was

abhorred in the middle ages. The man who buys up the Forestalling supply of some certain article, or, as we say, "corners it," in order that he may sell at an advance, would, in the middle ages, have been punished heavily, on the ground that he was taking advantage of his fellowman. This was called "forestalling the market." But the medieval attitude toward forestalling discouraged wholesalers and tended to limit commerce.

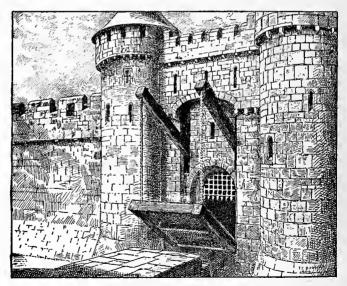
A hindrance to commerce in the middle ages was the Tariffs unequal and unjust system of tariffs in force. Each small landholder had the right to levy a slight tax on goods passing through his territories. For this reason merchants were constantly delayed at points along their route and lost a large amount of their profit into the bargain. The medieval Danger of merchants often contended with robbers, who took from Loss them their valuables, and with pirates, who overhauled them on the seas. If the ship containing their goods was unfortunately wrecked, all its contents were, by the inhuman strand laws of those days, adjudged to belong to the lord of the lands upon whose shores it had gone to pieces.

In spite of these restrictions, commerce grew. Leagues Town of towns sprang up, whose objects were to punish the robbers Leagues of sea and land and to strengthen the hands of the merchants in every way possible. One of these, the Hansa or Hanseatic League, composed of over sixty important commercial cities of Europe, from Novgorod, in far-away Russia, to London, England, was able to wage war on kings and to render the interests of a single merchant of one of its towns as safe as those of a Roman citizen in the fairest days of the empire. Great fairs were held at many of the important Fairs towns, to which merchants and citizens flocked from every quarter. These served not only as promoters of commerce and industry, but of general culture as well. Great argosies of merchant ships sailed forth under the convoy of men-at-

¹ It is true that most of the tariffs were known beforehand and could be estimated into the price of the article sold by the merchant, thus forcing the "ultimate consumer" to pay the tax; yet with perishable articles in stock, the merchant would often lose all the money he invested in it.



AT THE GATE OF THE CASTLE



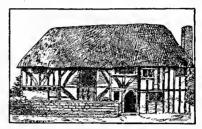
DRAWBRIDGE AND PORTCULLIS

Drawbridges were a common means of defence in the Middle Ages. Part of the bridge could be raised by means of the beams and chains, as shown in the picture, and the iron grating called the portcullis, sliding in a groove in the walls could be lowered, so as to bar the entrance.

House Furnishings

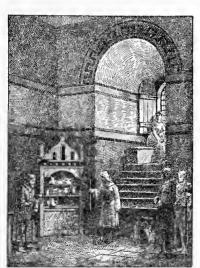
war of the leagues or of the great princes, and little by little the wealthier merchants usurped the places of the former nobility in the contest for luxurious living and political importance.

85. Medieval Art and Architecture. — Although the houses of the wealthier merchants were far from possessing the comforts of the humblest modern dwellings, yet in certain ways they were much finer. The furniture, while



OLD CLERGY HOUSE, ALFRISTON

scanty, was of the finest and heaviest woods, carved in

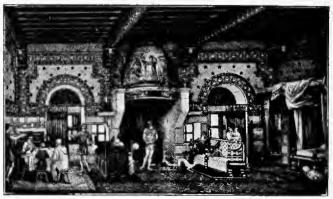


A CORNER IN THE HALL OF THE KEEP OF KENILWORTH CASTLE

beautiful designs, and upon the massive dining table, silver and even gold dishes showed the wealth and importance of their owners. The windows were small, with tiny panes of glass set in lead, for glass was an expensive luxury. Upon the walls hung costly tapestries, brought from the East. or else embroidered by the fingers of European peasants, such a tapestry as was made by the Saxon serving women of the Conqueror's queen, on which is outlined in

quaint colors the whole tragic story of Harold and Wil-

liam.¹ In heating, lighting, and plumbing, the medieval houses could not compare with a modern cottage. The manor houses varied greatly in size and appointments, from a magnificence as great as that of the town houses to the squalor of the one-roomed peasant home. In the smaller dwellings no arrangement was made to separate the domestic animals from the human members of the household; they actually "kept the pig in the parlor." In the finer manor houses, such as Scott describes in the home of Ced-



GREAT HALL OF A CASTLE IN THE LATE MIDDLE AGES

ric the Saxon, there were several apartments and many refinements.

The Castle

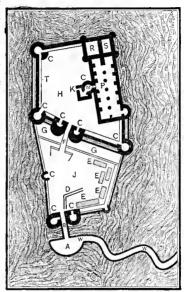
The castle was an artificial fort, usually built on some naturally fortified spot, such as a hill, swamp, or island; more rarely on an open plain. The walls were further strengthened by the addition of stone towers and deep surrounding ditches full of water. The principal tower, in which the family of the lord took refuge in time of siege, was called the keep, and was protected by a massive door, or gate, called the portcullis, and by deepening and broadening

¹ A famous tapestry, with the embroideries above described, is known as the Bayeux tapestry because it was found in a monastery in that town.

the ditch, or moat, across which the only means of approach was a drawbridge raised or lowered from a position within the castle. Near to or surrounding the walls of the castle, villages were frequently erected, the castle forming the citadel of the town, as in Edinburgh.

The castle is situated on the summit of a rocky precipice

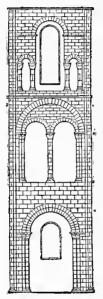
- W. A winding road, the only means of access
- A. Open space where the lord's retainers formed before a march, and from which the road was guarded
- B. Bridge leading into the castle exterior
- C. Towers for outlook and de-
- D. Screen for protection against
- besiegers' missiles E. Servants' quarters and stables: in time of siege these were usually fired and abandoned
- J. Exterior court
- Ğ. Moat
- F. Drawbridge H. Interior court
- K. First entrance wayM. Inner entrance
- P. Castle proper
- RS. Dungeon-keep
- T. Interior wall: the towers surrounding the inner courts . had a hidden connection formed by T



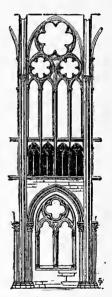
PLAN OF A MEDIEVAL CASTLE

Along artistic lines the most important medieval achieve- Architecture ments were in architecture, which reached a high degree of excellence in the Gothic style, introduced into England about the time of Henry III. Buildings used for law courts during the pagan days of the Roman empire gave the early Christians their models for church construction, because they were better adapted to the gatherings of worshippers, introduced by the new religion, than were the older temple forms.

inasmuch as the temple was primarily intended to contain the shrine of a god and not at all to accommodate a large number of worshippers. These early churches, or basilicas, by adding a transept or wing to each side, at the pulpit end of the buildings, assumed the form of a cross and gained in capacity. (See plans on page 233.)



ONE BAY OF TRANSEPT, WINCHESTER CATHEDRAL



ONE BAY, ABBEY OF ST. DENIS

A comparison of Romanesque simplicity and Gothic ornateness.

Gothic and Romanesque Styles compared The Gothic style was lighter and more airy than the Romanesque, or Norman, as will be observed by examining specimen churches built in each style. Instead of the narrow windows, made necessary by the thick walls of the Norman style, the later medieval churches were better lighted by large windows, richly decorated with stained glass which even modern skill cannot duplicate, while they became loftier and at the

same time less massive because of the use of three architectural devices invented at that time. The first was the flying buttress, which gave the walls as much strength as the former massive style had given, and also afforded more room for window space; the second was the clustered pillar, in which a number of slender, graceful pillars grouped together supported the arches of the roof more surely than

the clumsy, heavy, single shaft of Norman times; the third, and perhaps most important, was the characteristic Gothic or pointed arch, which displaced the monotonous round arch of the earlier style, and by permitting varying heights to the spans supported by pillars, gave an additional beauty to the church structure.

86. Medieval Education.

— The educational system built up by the Romans was ended by the closing of the public schools during the reign of Justinian, and for several centuries the only centres of learning in Europe were the monasteries. It is true that several medieval kings, like Charlemagne and Alfred, recognized the im-



Beginnings of Education in the Middle Ages

EARLY GOTHIC FLYING BUTTRESS

Flying buttresses were in common use in early England. They added great strength to the wall and were used as a means of decoration.

portance of education sufficiently to establish schools, but in the period of warfare which followed their reigns many of these schools were closed. During the eleventh century a few were re-established in the cities of France; for example in Paris, where, by the beginning of the twelfth century, theology was systematically studied. The greatest educator Abelard of this century was a clergyman named Abelard, whose lec-

tures attracted thousands of students to Paris. He taught that the way to knowledge is by individual human reason and not by the opinions of others; hence he was attacked

by the most devout churchmen of his time, to whom his teachings seemed

almost heretical.

Universities

During the same century the school at Paris was incorporated as a gild, or universitas (the Latin word for such an association), and was patronized by the king. Similar universities were founded about the same time at Oxford and Cambridge in England, and at Bologna in Italy. The subjects studied were classified as the seven liberal arts and theology. The seven liberal arts formed two groups: the trivium, or three-fold way to knowledge, including logic, rhetoric, and grammar; and the quadrivium. or four-fold way, made up of music, arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy. The method of instruction was chiefly that of the lecture: the teacher read portions of some authority to his class and made comments upon them; the students, sitting on the straw-covered ground, took down in note form the material presented.

Instruction

The likeness of the medieval university to a gild is shown in the following rules governing the former: the teachers were called masters (hence our degree

BUTTRESS-SOUTHWELL MINSTER

of master of arts) and attained the right to this title only after years of preparation or apprenticeship with other famous teachers; furthermore it was often the custom among medieval scholars to travel from one school to another in order to gain a knowledge of different methods of thought, much as did the journeymen in the gilds. The

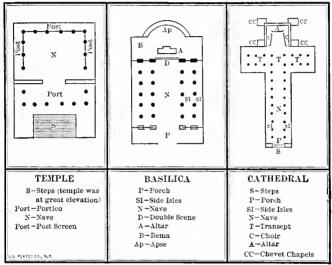
Course of

Study

Methods of

Resemblance of the Medieval University and Gild

students of the middle ages led a rather disorderly exist- Life of Stuence, for when not attending the lectures, they spent their time in drinking and gambling, which often brought about brawls. Easily distinguishable from other townsmen by their peculiar caps and gowns, and free from proper restraint and discipline, they often became involved in serious conflicts with the people in "town and gown" riots.



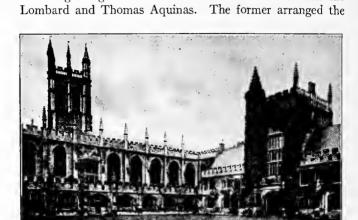
PLANS OF A TEMPLE, BASILICA, AND CATHEDRAL

The most striking peculiarity of medieval education was Respect for the great respect paid to the writings of Aristotle, who was Aristotle regarded as the philosopher, an authority on all matters of knowledge almost equal to the Bible. The lectures of the masters were frequently based on his works, and although Aristotle lived three centuries before the Christian era, the greatest supporters of the medieval church did not scruple to found their theological arguments upon his opinions. The word "scholasticism" is applied to their methods of Scholasticism thought and of argument. Scholasticism assisted learning by interesting many in the universities and so aiding their growth.

yet in general it tended to hamper originality of thought. By arousing interest in intellectual pursuits and by furnishing a definite system of thought, based upon Aristotle's teachings, scholasticism invited and guided a multitude of men into the fields of knowledge; yet by discouraging experimentation and the search into any subject not treated of by the Greek philosopher, it narrowed the field of education.

Among the greatest of scholastic teachers were Peter the

Great Scholastics



MAGDALEN COLLEGE - OXFORD

essential doctrines of the medieval church into the compact form, "The Sentences," which furnished an admirable text-book for use in the theological schools of the period. Thomas Aquinas, a professor at the University of Paris, a far clearer thinker than Peter the Lombard, produced a somewhat similar book in his "Summary of Theology," which is still regarded by the Roman Church as the best exposition of its beliefs.

Roger Bacon

The dangers of scholasticism were understood by a few of the medieval scholars, among whom none ranks higher than Roger Bacon, an Englishman of the thirteenth century. He believed that too much respect was being paid to the opinions of the old Greek philosopher, and urged the importance of the observation of nature. He would have delighted in the laboratories possessed by modern high schools for the study of chemistry and biology. Among the most notable of his investigations was that into the nature of steam; tradition relates that he constructed a working model of a steam engine four hundred years before his countryman, Watt, made practical the engine of today, and that his fellow-

friars, in their ignorance and superstitious fear, demolished it as a work of witchcraft.

In the following prophecy made by him, in a letter to a friend. Bacon showed that he was far ahead of his time. Of the future of scientific discovery he says: "Instruments for navigation can be made that will do away with the necessity for rowers, so that large ships, both in the rivers and on the seas, shall be borne about with only a single man to guide them and



INTERIOR OF AMIENS CATHEDRAL

with greater speed than if they were full of men; and carriages can be built to move without animals to draw them, and with unbelievable speed. Machines for flying can be made, in which a man sits and turns an ingenious device by which skilfully constructed wings are made to strike the air like the wings of a bird. Apparatus can be planned, compact in itself, for raising and lowering tremendously great weights: bridges can be built to span rivers without any support."

¹ In the motor-boat, automobile, aeroplane, steam-crane, and suspension bridge, all inventions of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, these prophecies of Bacon have been fulfilled.

Bacon's Prophecy

Character of Medieval Science

Bacon was practically alone in insight into scientific truth. Most of the scientific writings of the middle ages have two characteristics in common: a picturesque mingling of fact and fancy, and a strong intent to point a religious moral. Both characteristics are fully illustrated in the following extract from an old English legend: "A bird. called phœnix, inhabits this forest, who, when old, gathers fragrant plants, builds a nest in the top of a tree, and sits on it. Suddenly the sun kindles his nest into flame and the phoenix is consumed. From the ashes of the pyre the likeness of an apple is found; out of this grows a worm, as if hatched from an egg. It grows, becoming like the young of an eagle, until it is in size like a full-grown eagle; and decked with brilliant plumage the phonix is again beheld. In this manner man will choose to enter everlasting life through death's dark portal."

Other fields of knowledge show the same lack of definite observation and of the confusion of myth and fact, as is shown in the historical gem that follows: "A man lived in the Island of Crete, whose name was Saturn, so violent and cruel that he devoured his infant sons, all but one, who was called Jove, who drove his father out of the island. This Jove was the greatest of all the heathen gods; among certain nations he was called Thor."

Teutonic and Romance Languages 87. Medieval Languages and their Literatures. — The two principal groups of languages ¹ in western Europe during the middle ages were those derived from the Latin, called Romance languages, ² and those spoken by the various German tribes, the Teutonic languages. To the latter group

Other groups of languages, of widely different origins, are the Celtic, spoken by the early inhabitants of Gaul and Britain, of which the Gaelic (Scotch), Erse (Irish), Welsh, and Armorican (Breton of Brittany) are examples; the Slavic, spoken by the people of Russia and Poland; and the Magyar, or Hungarian language. (See page 153.)

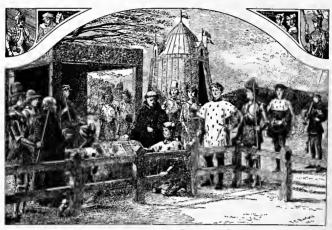
² The Romance (Roman or Latin) has given its name to a type of literature, because the inventors of that style of fiction wrote in the corrupt, mingled speech which arose from the attempts of the early German invaders of the Roman empire to pronounce the language found there.

belong English, a combination of French and Anglo-Saxon. Dutch (Holland), Flemish, spoken in Flanders, German, Gothic (now a dead language), and the Scandinavian group. Danish. Norse, and Swedish. The Romance group includes the languages spoken in those parts of western Europe which were longest under the control of the Roman empire, in Italy, France, and the Spanish peninsula.

The Teutonic peoples produced the greater literature of Teutonic the middle ages, notwithstanding the fact that the Romance Epics languages inherited that of Latin. The wonderful "Nibelungenlied," or "Song of the Nibelungs," composed by the Burgundians, has afforded the theme for Wagner's great circle of operas, including "Rhinegold," "The Valkyrie," and "Siegfried." The first translation of the Bible into the common tongue of the northern people was made into Gothic by Ulfilas, a Gothic missionary. In Anglo-Saxon, besides the work of Bede and Caedmon (see p. 183), a great epic poem. "Beowulf," relates the deeds of the great hero by that name, who slew dragons and ruled his people wisely in the days before the Saxon-folk came over the bounding water to the lands of the Welsh.

The work of the minnesingers, German singers of short Minnesingers love poems, resembled that of the troubadours of France, and Troubawho wandered from castle to court, singing and entertaining the company there assembled with stories of knightly deeds and of chivalry, the institutions governing the knights of Chivalry the middle ages. The knight regarded his position as a very exalted one. He underwent a careful training; first, while a lad, as page in a knight's family; second, while a youth, as esquire to the knight, his follower in war, whose duties were to serve him in every way possible, assisting him to don the heavy armor of metal plates or the coats of mail made up of thousands of tiny metal links closely fastened together for protection against swords and lances. He was chosen to the knightly rank after some deed of signal bravery on the field of battle. Before assuming all the privileges of knighthood he must undergo the vigil, or watchnight, by kneeling thinly clad all night before a church

altar, upon which his armor was displayed, repeating prayer after prayer. Yet what a pride must have filled him when later he felt the light tap of his lord's sword on his shoulder, and heard the words, "Arise, Sir Knight!"



PREPARATIONS FOR A JUDICIAL COMBAT

The King-at-Arms is standing near the corner of the enclosure in which the fight is to take place. The appellant and the defender are making their oath together before the Judge of Combat.

Knighthood

This beautiful extract from the poem "Guinevere" by Tennyson records with historical accuracy the ideals of chivalry and knighthood, although in actual practice the knight was far from their attainment. King Arthur is made to say:

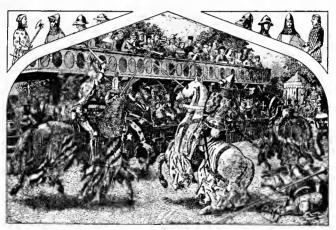
"I made them lay their hands in mine and swear
To reverence the King, as if he were
Their conscience, and their conscience as their King,
To break the heathen, and uphold the Christ,
To ride abroad redressing human wrongs,

To speak no slander, no, nor listen to it, To honor his own word as if his God's,

To lead sweet lives in purest chastity."

The knight reserved these ideals for use only in his own rank of society. Instances of such an attitude toward

peasants and poor freemen are rare in the middle ages. The "Idylls of the King," the poems in which Tennyson relates the deeds of King Arthur, a British chieftain supposed to have delayed the Saxon conquest of England, are founded upon a medieval French romance, the "Morte d'Arthur," by Sir Thomas Malory, an Anglo-French writer. Another circle of legends clusters around the court of Charlemagne and the deeds of his paladins, especially of Roland, the count of the Spanish marches, whose heroic death is celebrated in



PART OF A TOURNAMENT IN THE REIGN OF RICHARD II

legend and is responsible for the marvellous achievements related of that monarch.

88. Summary of the Life of the Middle Ages. — During the middle ages the workers were the common people of town and country. The lords lived lives of idleness or, at best, of fruitless amusement, and required the common people to support them. The growth of towns enabled the townsmen to secure more political liberty, and this enlightenment spread slowly to the countrymen. Learning was at first confined to the clergy, who gathered together to form universities, keeping alive the spark of knowledge through

an otherwise dark era. Commerce was restricted by the church and by the dangers of the time. The worst feature of medieval life was the lack of personal liberty, which was emphasized by the idea of privilege. With the spread of commerce and the growth of industry in the towns, the old ideas of chivalry were broken down and a better standard of living for all classes was made possible. Dimly the medieval writer felt within him the stirring towards a nobler life than that of warfare and fruitless argument. In Italy, France, and England arose individuals or groups of men, who by their teaching or deeds were preparing for the wonderful outburst of enlightenment which accompanied the discovery of the new world and the freedom of man's conscience from the commands of irrational authority.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Describe the life on the manor of Cedric the Saxon as found in *Ivonhoe*. Make a study of some medieval town, as Chester, Oxford, or London. Write a description in your note-books of the Tower of London, Canterbury Cathedral, a medieval monastery. Describe a medieval fair. Copy in your note-books a plan of the medieval manor; of a castle; diagrams showing the characteristic features of Norman and Gothic architecture. Make a collection of pictures illustrating the art and architecture of the middle ages. Relate the stories of the *Nibelungen Lied*, *Beowulf*, *Idylls of the King*, Charlemagne's paladins.

(The following topics are treated in Beard's English Historians.)

Thirteenth Century Descriptions of the Manor of Wilburton, 158. Sale and Discharge of Works, 161. Manorial Accounts in Edward II's Day, 162. The Summary of the Development of the Manor, 167. Origin of English Towns, 169. Character and Origin of Merchant Gilds, 171. Membership in Merchant Gild, 172. Gild Regulations, 174. Craft Gild and its Relation to Merchant Gild, 175. Early Craft Gilds, 177. Struggle of Craftsmen for Prvileges 179. Growth of Craft Gilds, 180. Internal Organization of Craft Gild, 181. Town Life in the Middle Ages — Provisions for Municipal Defence, 185. Medieval Police, 188. Municipal Lands, 190. Municipal Property and Finance, 190. Municipal Improvements, 192. Public Charity, 190. Town Gayeties, 194. The Church as a Centre of Town Life, 198. Public Spirit in Medieval Towns, 202.

(The following topics are treated in Emerton's Medieval Europe. Scholastic Culture and Great Scholastics, 446-464. Medieval Universities, 465-472. Serfdom, 500-520. The Communes, 522-540.

A longer treatment of the life and culture of the middle ages, than that given in the text, may be read in Robinson's *History of Western Europe*, 233–276, or in Munro's *History of the Middle Ages*, 135–168.

Reference Readings

Cheyney, Short History of England, pp. 195-204; Readings in English History, pp. 188-195, 208-217.

Guerber, Legends of the Middle Ages: American Book Company. (For the stories.)

Tennyson, Idylls of the King. (Any edition.)

Seignobos, Medieval Civilization, pp. 67-71, 164-172, 192-204.

Kendall, Source-Book of English History, pp. 65-71. (Description of London about 1200.)

Cheyney, Social and Industrial History of England, pp. 75-95: Macmillan.

Webster, General History of Commerce, pp. 94-106: Ginn and Co. (Summary of medieval commerce.)

MAPS AND PLANS

Shepherd, Historical Atlas. Plan of London about 1300, p. 75; Medieval Commerce, pp. 98-99; Hanseatic League, p. 99; Ground Plan of Monastery, 101; Asiatic Commerce, 102-103; Plan of Medieval Manor, p. 104; Medieval Universities, p. 100.

CHAPTER XII

THE CLOSE OF THE MIDDLE AGES

89. The Hundred Years' War. - Edward III, the son of the incompetent Edward II, is remembered principally



COSTUMES IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

R. Herald V. Lady

S. Herald W. Traveller T. Morris Dancer U. Lady X. Traveller Y. Trave

Y. Traveller

because he resumed the struggle, begun by Henry II, to win the territories of the French king. This struggle lasted for over one hundred years and ended in the extinction of England's power in France.1 King John had surrendered to Philip Augustus the former possessions of his family in northern France, and all that remained of the once splendid

¹ During the first part of the war Edward gained Calais in northern France, which remained an English possession long after the Hundred Years' Wars were ended.

Angevin dominion was the district south of the Loire. For Causes nearly two hundred years the French rulers had endeavored in various ways to gain Guienne and Gascony, thus furnishing for Guienne one cause for war between England and France.

(r) Contest and Gasconv

Trade

The Hundred Years' War started in a contest for com- (2) The Wool mercial supremacy between Philip VI of France and Edward III. For a century the towns in the French fief of Flanders had used only English grown wool, because it was of much finer quality and of longer fiber than the wool grown in



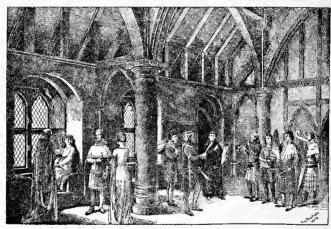
A STATE CARRIAGE IN THE TIME OF EDWARD III

The carriage, drawn by six horses, was heavy, clumsy, and springless. It was elaborately upholstered and decorated.

France. Philip wished to shut out English wool from the Flemish towns, in order that he might create a market there for French wool, and thus stimulate this branch of industry in his kingdom; so he induced the Count of Flanders to issue orders hampering the trade in English wool. Chafing at these restrictions, the burghers of Ghent and Bruges and other Flemish towns rebelled against their lord and asked Edward to aid them. Philip came to the aid of his vassal, and thus the struggle commenced.

(3) Coast Raids

(4) Violation of Neutrality by France Englishmen were ready for this war. French fishermen were in the habit of interfering with English commerce and with the fishing industry. Frequent raids were made by the coast vessels of each race upon the unprotected fishing villages on each side of the channel. Another cause of hostility was the failure of the French rulers to maintain a neutral position in the wars between England and Scotland. French troops had assisted Scotland in her struggle for independence and French money had kept the cause of freedom alive in Scotland, much in the same way and for the

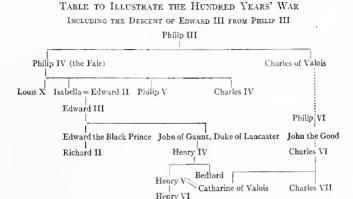


Scene in the Reign of Edward III
Showing the architecture, costumes, and musical instruments

same motives that France acted, in the American Revolution, toward the colonies.

(5) Claim of Edward III to the French Throne After hostilities had actually commenced Edward advanced a claim to the throne of France. According to one theory of succession this claim was reasonable. The three brothers of Isabella, Edward's mother, had died without male heirs, and Edward believed that he had the next claim to the crown; but the Salic law, followed in France, pro-

hibited a woman from succeeding to the throne, even from transmitting a claim to her son. The French people had had no desire to be ruled by an English king, and so they had chosen the nearest male heir, a distant cousin of Isabella, to rule over them.



After several years of preparation Edward III invaded First Period France and won a signal victory at Crecy in Normandy, of the War where his well-armed infantry and accurately shooting archers put to rout the medieval army of French knights. From this time the infantry soldier was valued at his proper worth. Soon after Crecy, Edward captured Calais, an important seaport town of Normandy which remained a possession of England long after she had lost the remainder of her French possessions. Ten years after Crecy the Prince of Wales, known as Edward the Black Prince, won an equally great victory over Philip's successor at the battle of Poitiers. During the last part of this war cannons were first used in sieges. The war dragged on for several years until, both sides weary of fighting, peace was made at Bretigny

¹ That Edward's claim was not advanced by him until after the war had been begun is good proof that it was not considered a serious one at first, even by those most interested.

in 1360. Edward III gave up his claim to the French throne and to the northern provinces, but received a clear title to the southern provinces; whereas the French king promised not to interfere in Guienne or in the Flemish wool trade.

Beginnings of the Lancastrian Family In the interval between the first and second periods of this war many important social and economic changes took place in England, of which we shall treat later. The Black Prince died before his father, leaving a young son who was crowned



AN ATTACK ON A WALLED TOWN

as Richard II. Richard was at first under the influence of his uncle, John of Gaunt, as the English pronounced Ghent. When the young king attempted to rule arbitrarily, he was deposed and murdered by order of John's son, the young Duke of Lancaster, who became Henry IV. This political change was sanctioned by parliament, which by this time had gained several powers. Through its power over taxation, which originated in Magna Carta, it could compel the king to make peace if the expenses of the war became too great. It could force the dismissal of unpopular ministers, and on two occasions dismissed the king himself, — Edward II and

Richard II. Henry IV, the first of the Lancastrian family Second Period of rulers, was too much occupied with affairs at home to of the War resume the war with France, but his son, Henry V, reopened the struggle. After winning the famous battle of Agincourt, Henry V forced the imbecile Charles VI of France to sign a treaty at Troyes in 1420, recognizing Henry as the

heir to the throne of France and excluding the dauphin, who afterward became Charles VII. To seal this agreement Henry married

Catharine, sister of the

dauphin.1

Henry V and Charles VI died the same year, and Henry's brother. the Duke of Bedford. took up the fight to make the dead king's infant son, Henry VI, king of France as well as of England. France was divided by a contest between the powerful Dukes of Burgundy and Orleans to secure control over the



IOAN OF ARC LEADING THE FRENCH TROOPS AT ORLEANS

Dauphin Charles, and when the Armagnacs, or Orleanist faction, murdered the Duke of Burgundy the Burgundians went over to the side of the English. Just at this juncture, when all appeared dark for France, there appeared a wonderful champion for the dauphin in the person of a humble shepherd girl from the village of Domremv. who is known as Joan of Arc. From earliest childhood she

Toan of Arc

¹ The title of dauphin was applied to the heir to the French throne. for much the same reason as the title of Prince of Wales is given the king's oldest son in England.

had dreamed of becoming the saviour of France, and believed that she had visions of the saints. When the English laid siege to the city of Orleans, she thought she was told by heavenly voices to go to the dauphin and offer him her aid. It seems very strange and unreal to us to read how she convinced the war-hardened advisers of the dauphin of the righteousness of her purpose, and how, at the head of the en-



TOAN OF ARC

This picture shows the crowning of Charles VII at Rheims, the ancient coronation city of the French kings. When Joan succeeded in getting the coronation accomplished she felt that her personal mission was finished.

couraged French army. she drove the besieging forces from the walls of Orleans. Filled with a new inspiration and enthusiasm, the French rallied around their dauphin and crowned him king of France at the city of Rheims, the ancient coronation place of French kings. Toan's work was done. and she longed to return to her former quiet life, but Charles VII would not consent. Thereafter her luck seems to have deserted her, for she was captured by the Burgundians and betraved to the English, who were glad of the opportunity to wreak their vengeance upon the one who

had defeated their hopes. Joan was accused of having won her victories by witchcraft, and on that charge was condemned and burnt at the stake. This act of cruelty availed nothing, for the French nation was thoroughly aroused. The French armies were everywhere victorious, and within

twenty years the English had lost all their French possessions except Calais.

90. Social Conditions in England during the Hundred Effects of the Years' War.—The hundred years of warfare with France wrought great suffering upon the people of both countries. A terrible pestilence, called Black Death, swept over Europe several times during the progress of these wars, greatly

Years' War

diminishing the population, especially in England. This pest, a form of the bubonic plague, caused great changes in the economic conditions of England. The scarcity of laborers doubled the cost of living and greatly increased the need for help, and in accordance with the law of supply and demand, enabled the working men to demand higher wages. The government vainly tried to put things back on the old basis by passing various statutes concerning laborers, requiring them to work



(1) Increased Cost of Living

(2) Statutes of Laborers

THE TOWER OF JOAN OF ARC

The donjon of the castle of Bouvreuil was built by Philip Augustus after the conquest of Normandy in 1204. Here Joan of Arc was imprisoned.

for the wage prevailing before the plague had diminished the supply of available workmen, and forbidding the payment of higher wages under severe penalties, but the landlords had to have laborers and the statutes soon were disobeyed. Little by little the shackles were struck from the serfs and (3) Decline of they became free laborers; yet the process was slow and the Serfdom common people became very discontented with their lot.

(4) Poll Tax

This discontent was increased by the levying of heavy taxes incidental to the maintenance of foreign war, such as the poll tax which was collected from the heads of families.

(5) Lollardry Wyclif Illiterate preachers went around England preaching socialistic doctrines and attacking the right of the governing classes to hold the peasants in poverty and servitude. They were uneducated because, owing to the carrying off of the



BANQUET HALL AT HADDON HALL (Fourteenth Century)

clergy by Black Death, the times required men to accept the responsibilities of priesthood with little opportunities for training. Coming principally from the humbler classes, these men questioned the right of the government to tax and to rule the commoners so harshly, and as the church upheld the government, they often criticised the church.

¹ A favorite saying with these preachers was:

[&]quot;When Adam delved, [dug or ploughed] And Eve span, Who was then the gentleman?"

The most outspoken of the critics of the church of this period was not an ignorant peasant, but a clergyman named Wyclif, a professor at Oxford. (See also p. 250.) His followers received the nickname "Lollards," which had long been used on the continent as a term of reproach for those who brought forward new and ridiculous ideas. Lollardry grew to such

A ere biginney genelis: ca. 1. A pe biginning god made of nount-henene and erper tout touche pe erperbas idel 2 void: 1 drie nethe weren on petace of deppe, and pe spurit of veloid was born on vewatus, and ood leide int be mand, intibas mand i god con ve int vat it was good a he departide pelut fro derknellis, and be demic ve hit day and ve derknetis: mit r ve eneuth a mouseted was mand to day and gor leide be tringment be mad in he imported wats: and departe waters fro waters/and god made pe for mament and departide perhatus yat weren undur ve farmament fin peletratus pat weren on pe far mament tit was don wand god depide ve firmamet hevener and referented a mormetod thas mand : he le.

WYCLIE'S BIBLE

Facsimile of first verses of Genesis, translated by Nicholas Hereford under Wyclif's direction. Wyclif translated only a part of the Old Testament and the Gospels of St. Mark in the New Testament. The remainder was done under his direction. It was completed in 1383-1384.

an extent that the English government made heresy a crime punishable with burning at the stake.

This discontent came to a head in an insurrection of the (6) Peasants' peasants led by Wat Tyler, which for a short time threatened Revolt to overturn the government. London was taken by the rebels and sacked, and many officials were murdered by the enraged peasants. Lulled into false security by the promises

of King Richard II to make them freemen, and disheartened at the murder of their leader, the rebels dishanded, only to be hunted down and punished by the government with the utmost severity.

Beginnings of English Literature The literature of the period reflects the differences between the court life and the peasant's occupations. In "Piers Plowman," a long poem attributed to William Langland, a



CHAUCER

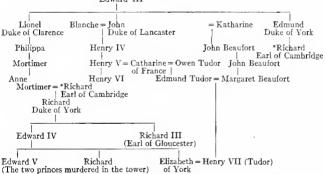
northern writer of whom little is known, life among the lowly is described in vigorous and somewhat rough-sounding English, which shows much closer resemblance to the more highly inflected German than does the mixed Norman-English of the south. The finest examples of the latter are to be found in the English translation of the Bible made by Wyclif and in the group of narrative poems called "The Canterbury Tales." These were written by a courtier named Geoffrey Chaucer and purport to be a series of personal experiences related at the Tabard Inn in Southwark. across the Thames from old London, wherein a band of pilgrims to the shrine of

St. Thomas at Canterbury have stopped for the night's refreshment and rest.

Causes of the Wars of the Roses 91. The Wars of the Roses and the First Tudor King.— When the French wars were ended England was shaken by a series of civil wars between rival branches of the family of Edward III, commonly known as the Wars of the Roses, because of the emblems chosen by each faction. We have already seen how the Lancastrian family had obtained the throne.

(See p. 246.) There were many in England who believed that the crown should have gone to one of the descendants of the Duke of Clarence, the older brother of John of Gaunt. The most promising candidate of the latter faction was Richard, Duke of York, the grandson of the founder of the House of York: and his claim to the throne was made more formidable by the condition of imbecility which clouded the later life of Henry VI. The war between the Lancastrians, or Red Roses, and the Yorkist faction, or White Roses, was made more bitter by the disorder of the country following the economic changes resulting from Black Death. The barons had taken advantage of the preoccupation of the royal government and had gathered around themselves armed bands of professional fighters, uniformed and maintained by their patrons. This practice of "livery and maintenance" was contrary to the spirit of English law, as it tended to create small standing armies not under the control of the king.

TABLE TO ILLUSTRATE THE WARS OF THE ROSES Edward III



The wars consisted of a number of battles between the Summary of Lancastrian and Yorkist nobles, first to control the weakminded king, Henry VI, later to crown the Yorkist claim-After Richard's death, his son, Edward, became the

the Wars of the Roses

^{*} The same person.

Yorkist leader. He had the support of the middle class and the towns because he promised to restore order and to curb the nobles. At first Edward was victorious, then the most prominent Yorkist nobleman, next to Edward, the Earl of Warwick, deserted to Henry, and Edward fled from England; but, later, aided by the Duke of Burgundy, he returned, defeated the Lancastrians, and executed Henry VI.

The Reign of Edward IV

The Introduction of Printing

With the reign of Edward IV, the English monarchy began to be more absolute. At peace with foreign foes and domestic factions, Edward did away with the need of securing funds by consent of parliament by forcing the clergy to pay him large sums, and by confiscating the Lancastrian estates. He deserves chiefly to be remembered as the patron of the newly introduced art of printing. The earliest printing was from wooden blocks: later separate and movable types were invented. William Caxton introduced the printing press from the continent (1476). He published the great works of English literature then extant, and translated into English Vergil's Æneid, Cicero's works, and other masterpieces, and was a powerful force in shaping the English language. Various forms of the same words were then used in England, and he had to choose between them. The written language of later writers followed his forms, which were those most commonly used by all classes. It was largely owing to the generous patronage of Edward IV that Caxton was enabled to engage in this work of educational and lasting value.

After twelve years' rule, during which the towns became prosperous owing to the king's policy, Edward died, leaving his crown to his twelve-year-old son, Edward V. The late king's brother, the Earl of Gloucester, imprisoned both Edward V and his brother Richard in the Tower of London and usurped the throne, taking the title of Richard III. He ruled for two years, when he was in turn killed at the battle of Bosworth by Henry Tudor, the sole important survivor of the Lancastrian family, who agreed to marry Edward IV's daughter, Elizabeth. With the accession of Henry VII

the Wars of the Roses and medieval England came to an Henry VII end. Henry was grasping by nature, but recognized the importance of commerce and industry. During his reign Mercantile England adopted the mercantile policy of government, by which is meant the assumption of close relations between government and industry; for by a series of treaties with various European monarchs. Henry broadened opportunities for English merchants. By a law forbidding livery and Law against maintenance (see p. 253) he put an end to the power of the feudal lords and, at the same time, strengthened the monarchy. By collecting forced loans, called benevolences,1 Renevolences from the more wealthy of his subjects, he was able to secure sufficient funds so that he need not ask parliament to raise taxes, and thus gained control over taxation in a roundabout manner. The ordinary courts were bound by a certain routine arising from the cases of common law, and therefore not adapted to a monarchy in which the will of the monarch should be supreme. Henry VII therefore established a secret tribunal, the Court of Star Chamber, to try those suspected Star Chamber of plotting against him. To his son Henry VIII he left a large treasury, a strongly centralized governmental machine, and a truly national English commerce; and by his aid to the Cabots, meagre as it was, he gave England the first claim to huge colonial possessions in America.

92. The Eclipse of the Papacy. — By the end of the thir- Position of teenth century the papacy had reached the height of its the Papacy at power and had begun to decline in influence. Fulfilling a Thirteenth unique function in the last days of the Roman empire, it Century had steadily increased in power. The circumstances connected with the crowning of Pippin (see p. 138) made the Roman Church supreme in the West, while the relations between Charlemagne and the pope put an end to the chances of the Eastern emperors of regaining influence in the West. Although the investiture struggle ended in a form of compromise, the Concordat of Worms brought the pope before the eyes of Europe as the arbiter of political as well as of

Livery and Maintenance

the End of the

¹ Benevolences were not loans in the sense that the giver expected to be repaid.

ecclesiastical matters. (See p. 158.) The church lost this position because of the rising force of national feeling in the greater states, especially in France.

Philip the Fair and Boniface VIII

Meeting of

the Estates General 1302 Philip the Fair adopted the policy of his contemporary, Edward I of England, in regard to taxation. With an impartiality displeasing to the church, Philip taxed clergymen as well as laymen. Against this system Pope Boniface VIII inveighed in the papal decree "Clericis laicos," prohibiting churchmen from paying taxes to the king of France. In order to find out how the important people of his country felt in regard to this matter, Philip called together a meeting of the estates general, a gathering of the representatives of the upper and middle classes or estates, thus acting in accordance with the growth of representative government in England. The estates general upheld the king in his attitude toward the pope. Attacked by a small force under Nogaret, one of Philip's councillors, and suffering from the wanton humiliation put upon him, Boniface was so disheartened that he shortly after died. This incident shows that the French nation was becoming conscious of itself.

Babylonian Captivity of the Church In order to carry out his own policies Philip, after the death of Boniface, procured the election of a Frenchman to the papacy, and transferred the seat of the papal government from Rome to Avignon, a small city south of France. The Babylonian captivity of the church, as this removal of the papacy from Rome is called, lasted for over seventy years, and had a profound effect upon the later history of the church. The Avignon popes were suspected, perhaps with some degree of justice, of favoring the French kings by their decisions and hence were little respected by the English or by other foes of France. During this period the papal court at Avignon was the scene of such extravagance and worldliness that Petrarch, a progressive clergyman of the Roman Catholic faith, was moved to denounce the lavish waste of resources by the church officials.

The Great Schism In 1377 a zealous pope ended the captivity by removing his court from Avignon to Rome. At his death the cardinals, many of whom were French and liked the luxurious living of Avignon, elected a simple-minded priest Urban VI. When he refused to take them back to Avignon they deposed him and elected another pope, Clement VI, who was more amenable to their wishes. Urban refused to recognize his own deposition, continued to rule as pope at Rome, and



MILAN CATHEDRAL

created a new college of cardinals from his own party. Christendom had the pathetic spectacle of two church organizations, each claiming to be the original church founded by Peter, each thundering edicts against the other. This period of rival papal claims is known as the Great

Schism. Its essential historic meaning was that the contest for supremacy had been transferred from the pope and the state to the pope and the general council of the church. In 1409 a council was held at Pisa which attempted to arbitrate between the rival popes, but the result was disastrons. As neither appeared before the council, it deposed both the Avignon and Roman pope and elected a new pope, who.



DUOMO AND CAMPANILE AT FLORENCE

it was hoped, would heal the schism; but as neither of the older popes recognized the legality of the acts of the council of Pisa there was thus created a third church organization within the fold of St. Peter.

It is not strange that, for the first time since the blotting out of the Albigenses, heresy lifted its head again. During the Babylonian captivity Wyclif made the first determined attack upon the papal authority, questioning the right of the pope, then the ally of the

French in the Hundred Years' War, to tax Englishmen.¹ The right of the papal authorities to levy heavy taxes upon the people of European nations without their consent became

Wyclif

¹ Another custom irritating to Englishmen was the appointment by the pope of persons designated to succeed abbots and other high clergy. As these provisional appointees or provisors were usually foreign born, even Frenchmen, and as on their account the expenses of the church were greatly increased, parliament forbade the practice by the Statute of Provisors.

one of the vital issues in the reformation of the church. Because of his war on this power of the papacy, Wyclif is called "the morning star of the Reformation."

His teachings were carried into Bohemia and accepted John Huss by John Huss, whose bitter attacks on the papacy formed

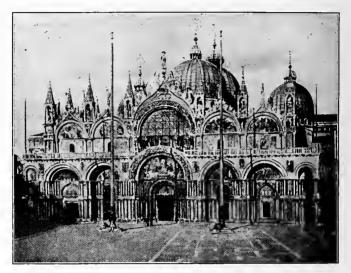


PALAZZO VECCHIO - FLORENCE

one of the reasons for the calling of the celebrated council at Constance in 1414. Under safe-conduct from his emperor, John Huss appeared before this council to answer to the charge of heresy. No one doubted that his views were heretical and as he refused to retract them

his condemnation was inevitable. In violation of the sacred promise of the emperor, Sigismund, Huss was burned at the stake. His death stirred up a fury among the people of Bohemia, who began the first of the great religious wars which characterized the first part of modern history.

Council of Constance In addition to the matter of heresy, other reasons for the calling together of a church council at Constance were to heal



St. Mark's Cathedral-Venice

the schism and to effect other needed reforms. After declaring a church council superior to the pope in the Decree Sacrosancta, the council healed the schism by deposing all the former rival popes and by selecting a new pope who was satisfactory to all factions of the church. It then drew up a list of tentative reforms; unfortunately these reforms were not put through at the time, owing to the opposition of reactionary clergymen within the church. In the century that followed, the failure to reform the church from within led

to an attempt to reform it from without, which is known as the Protestant Reformation.

93. The Renaissance. — Two factors contributed to bring to an end the period of history called the middle ages: the first was the renaissance; the other the great increase of

Meaning of the Term



STORY OF ABRAHAM (BY GHIBERTI). BAPTISTERY GATE, FLORENCE

interest in geographical and scientific discovery and invention. By the term "renaissance" is meant the revival of interest in learning of all kinds which characterized the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. This "rebirth" of learning manifested itself along many lines. Art became more life-like, architecture more beautiful, education more scientific and wider spread. The renaissance began in Italy and spread over

Europe, gradually changing medieval ideas into modern. In order to understand the renaissance it is necessary to know something of the conditions in Italy responsible for it.

Since the decline of the medieval empire Italy had possessed no unity of government. In the south was the

Medieval Italy



Two Masterpieces of Sculpture by Michael Angelo
The one at the left is a portrait statue of Lorenzo de Medici,

The one at the left is a portrait statue of Lorenzo de Medici, the patron of arts. The other statue is the sculptor's conception of Moses.

kingdom of Naples; in the central part were several small states under the direct sovereignty of the pope, the papal states or states of the church; in the north were a number of

city states which had grown up around the Lombard cities, among them four of special prominence — Florence, Venice, Milan, and Genoa. These cities, constantly at war with each other, employed soldiers of fortune, the condottieri, to fight their battles for them, a practice which caused such a demoralization that the republican governments flourishing in the earlier middle ages were overturned and dynasties of tyrants founded, or else the city was ruled by the wealthier classes, who chose dukes to act as chief magistrates. These tyrants. like those of ancient Greece, patronized art and education.

Cities

In Florence the Medici, a family of financiers who con- Governments trolled the city's policy, aided such great artists and sculptors of the Italian as Michael Angelo, of whom we shall speak later. Venice was controlled by a small group of wealthy aristocrats, who elected annually a council of ten to carry on its affairs, and a doge, or duke, to act as the nominal head of the govern-The commerce of Venice was on every sea and the profits of her enterprises brought a large amount of money into the city for the building of the beautiful palaces, which still moulder along the Grand Canal, and of the Byzantine church of San Marco, still the marvel of tourists because of its exquisite marbles and opulent oriental architecture. Milan levied tribute on the neighboring cities and erected a duchy out of the surrounding territory for the Sforza family, whose founder was a captain of condottieri. Genoa, posing as a republic until the time of Napoleon, shared the dominion of the sea with Venice, her rival on the eastern coast of Italy, and trained such navigators as Christopher Columbus.

Historians are now agreed that enlightenment did not Medieval actually die during the Dark Ages, as the earlier middle Art ages were formerly called. There had been a brief revival of learning in the time of Charlemagne; another in the twelfth century, and still another in the thirteenth. During this period all that was finest in art and literature was merely slumbering. The artists of the earlier middle ages painted beautiful faces, but the rest of the figure and the back-

ground was always sadly out of proportion, as can best be seen by examining a picture of that period.

and Literature

The literary productions were as badly out of proportion as were the artistic. There was no strength in the writing, which was always in Latin; and because people were careless in their study of Latin, many grammatical errors had crept in. The Greeks had more correct conceptions of art than



THE FLIGHT INTO EGYPT (GIOTTO)

the early medieval painters showed in their work. The reason for the failure on the part of the artists of that time to make use of the Greek models of form is perhaps to be explained by the distrust then felt for anything produced by heathen nations. This distrust led to a general ignorance concerning the Greeks.

¹ This statement serves to bring the single exception to this distrust into a very prominent position. For the position of Aristotle, see p. 233.

Early in the fifteenth century this ignorance began to be Causes of the dispelled by certain talented Greek professors, who were attracted by the prosperity of the northern Italian cities to lecture in their universities. Their students carried home a lively interest in the civilization of ancient Greece, and it is not surprising that from this time we find painting regaining qualities of beauty and naturalness, and that, as a result

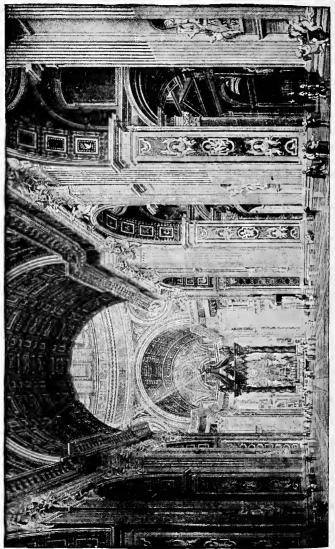
Renaissance



MADONNA OF ST. FRANCIS (ANDREA DEL SARTO) Compare the angularity and lack of naturalness in the Giotto group with the beauty and grace of the Del Sarto Madonna.

of the study of the works of Phidias and Praxiteles, sculpture became once more one of the fine arts. Just about this time, also, great advance was made in the knowledge of how to mix colors so as to produce lasting and life-like effects.

A visitor to Italy today will find in every important city traces of the work of several great artists and sculptors.



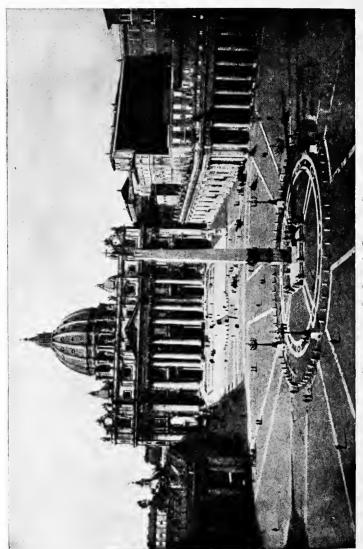
INTERIOR OF ST. PETER'S, ROME

among whom none are more famous than Raphael, Leonardo Great Figures da Vinci, and Michael Angelo. Raphael, who lived only of the Artistic thirty-seven years, produced no paintings which do not rank among the world's masterpieces of art. He resided both at Florence and Rome, where he was employed by the pope to assist in the decoration of the Vatican, the papal palace. There may be seen many of his greatest works of art, among them The Transfiguration, one of the grandest of all paintings. A painting almost equally famous is The Last Supper, painted on the wall of a church at Milan by Leonardo da Vinci, who was also an architect of great fame. The greatest of the three was their contemporary, Michael Angelo, a Florentine, who decorated the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican with wonderful frescoes, supervised the building of St. Peter's Church at Rome during the administrations of four popes, and also is regarded as one of the greatest sculptors of all time. Other great painters were Titian, a Venetian, famed for the rich golden hair of his feminine subjects. Holbein of Germany, Rubens of Holland, Van Dyck of Flanders, and Velasquez of Spain, all of whom are chiefly famous for their portraits of contemporary rulers or noted persons.

Italy led Europe in literature even earlier than in art. Be- Great Figures fore the people of northern Europe had made their languages suitable for the expression of great literature, Petrarch, an Italian clergyman living in Avignon, wrote most beautiful poems, and Boccaccio related witty stories in his native tongue, laying bare the frivolous life of the day. Somewhat later, but before the flowering of English drama, Tasso wrote his great epics on the Crusades and on the deeds of the paladins of Charlemagne. Another great poet of Italy was Dante, who, although preferring Latin to Italian, gave to the world his "Divine Comedy" in Italian. Dante is known as the forerunner of the humanists, as the lovers of classical study were called, from the Latin word humanitas, meaning "culture." Another great humanist was Erasmus, who spent much of his time in England during the life of his friend, Sir Thomas More.

Renaissance

of the Literary Renaissance



EXTERIOR OF ST. PETER'S CHURCH, ROME

Erasmus was concerned at the condition of the church in his day and did not hesitate to attack the ignorance and sloth of many of the clergy; but he did not favor violent changes, and hence was not in sympathy with the German humanists who supported Martin Luther in his war against the church. Sir Thomas More, another devout humanist, was prominent in the political history of England during the reign of Henry

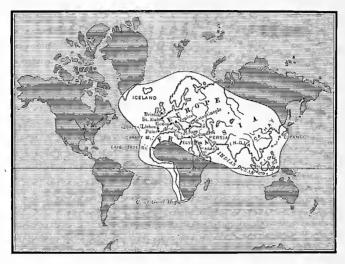


DANTE

VIII, the second Tudor king. In his famous book, "Utopia," the land of nowhere, he pictured an ideal country where the suffering and poverty of his own times were prevented.

94. The Age of Great Discoveries and Inventions.—About a half century before Columbus sailed out into the unknown ocean, Constantinople, the last outpost of Europe against the invading hosts of Mohammedans, was captured by the Ottoman Turks, a Mongol people, who have since

Need for Geographical Activity at this Time retained it as the capital of the Turkish empire in Europe. Wave after wave of invasion swept the Christians back to the Danube, and for many generations the Turks threatened the very heart of western Europe. Hostile in all things to the civilization of the West, the Turks closed the routes through the Black Sea by which European traders brought the spices and other products of the Far East. In an age



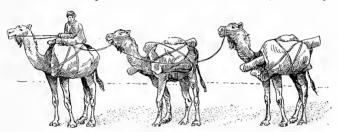
COMPARISON OF THE WORLD TODAY WITH THE WORLD OF COLUMBUS'S TIME

when meat was the chief article of diet and refrigerators unknown, it was necessary to use spices to preserve and often to disguise the taste of meats. Navigators were already trying to find new fields of trade or new routes to the old fields. Under the patronage of Prince Henry the Navigator, of Portugal, they coasted along the African coast, voyage after voyage, discovering Cape Verde, Sierra Leone, and under Diaz reaching the Cape of Good Hope five years before Columbus discovered America. These explorations

were carried further by Vasco da Gama, who reached Calicut (not Calcutta), India, in 1408.

The idea that the world is round was known to many Spread of ancient writers on geography, but the medieval scientists. basing their teachings upon the poetic imagery of the Bible, opposed any such idea. Scientific truth spread rapidly after the invention of printing, which was at first accomplished by the use of wooden blocks, on which had been carved by hand the various characters and figures. A hand press was used at first and its operation was slow and awkward, but many

Scientific



PART OF AN ASIATIC CARAVAN

times faster than the laborious process of copying by hand used before. The printing press was of incalculable value in spreading the refining influence of the new learning, because many copies of the works of the great Greek thinkers could be printed in much less time than it took the medieval historiographer to copy one illuminated page of a manuscript.

Columbus gave a new world to Europe to colonize and The Great for trade, and furnished Spain her claim to the new world. Discoverers while the conquests of Pizarro in South and Cortez in Central America gave Spain her richest colonies. Cabral, another Portuguese navigator, accidentally discovered the coast of Brazil while running southward to avoid storms. and thus gave Portugal her claim to Brazil, which she held until the nineteenth century. Another Portuguese captain, Magellan, while in the employ of Spain, was the first European to circumnavigate South America and to cross the Pacific. Had not Magellan lost his life in a skirmish with the Filipinos,

Sir Francis Drake, an English captain, would not have earned the credit for the first complete circumnavigation of the globe. Verrazano, a Florentine in the service of Francis I of France, sailed into the harbors of the future sites of New York and Newport and explored the Atlantic coast from Cape Hatteras to Nova Scotia; and Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence as far as the site of Montreal, thus establishing the



STRAITS OF MAGELLAN

The little ship was drawn from a model of Magellan's ship.

French claim to North America. Prior to these men the Cabots, Italians employed by Henry VII, had established the English right to the Atlantic seaboard, while Columbus was on his third voyage to the West Indies.

These voyages would have been impossible if improvements had not been made in the science of navigation. The mariner's compass enabled these captains to keep to a true course, while at the same time an advance in ship-

Invention aided Discovery building was made. Ships were built for longer voyages and of greater tonnage. Similar progress was made in other sciences. Copernicus, or Kupernik, a Polish philosopher, taught that the sun, not the earth, is the centre of the universe. Galileo, an Italian, was persecuted for advancing the heretical doctrine that the earth moved around the sun. These men were the founders of modern astronomy. Commercial relations with the Chinese introduced to Europe many of the useful inventions employed by the clever yellow men.

95. Summary of the Close of the Middle Ages. — In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries a series of wars wasted England and France, which caused England to lose her territories south of the Loire River. The plague which accompanied this war began a series of social changes of far-reaching importance. The schism in the church, which began with the Babylonian captivity, caused a growth of heresy in England and in Bohemia, which was hardly checked by the governments. The strife for church supremacy now shifted from the state to the church council against the pope. The time was one of change and transition, as is shown by the rebirth of interest in learning and art known as the renaissance, and by the geographical discoveries and inventions. Meanwhile the leading nations of Europe gained a feeling of nationality.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER REFERENCE

On a map of England and France show the territories of England in France at the beginning of the Hundred Years' War; locate London, Rouen, Calais, Avignon, Paris, Rheims; show the territories of the Count of Flanders; locate Crecy, Poitiers, Bretigny; show the territorial arrangements of the Treaty of Bretigny; locate Agincourt, Orleans; Wakefield, St. Albans, Barnet, Tewkesbury, Bosworth, Bristol. Show England's possessions in France at close of these wars. On a map of central Europe, including Italy, locate the three zones into which Italy was divided; locate Rome, Avignon, Pisa, Bohemia, the medieval empire, Constance, Florence, Milan, Genoa, Venice.

On a map of the world show the routes of the explorers mentioned in this chapter.

Collect for your note-books pictures of the famous men of the renais-

sance, and of their works.

Describe the life in England as described in Chaucer. Relate how the printing press was introduced into England. Describe tactics of medieval warfare as illustrated in the battle of Crecv.

TOPICAL READINGS

The following topics are to be found in Trevelvan's England in the Age of Wyclif: Longmans. England's medieval sea power, 52-56; Livery and maintenance, 58-80; The Babylonian captivity of the church, 75-80: Wyclif and the English church, 140-142, 160-182: The peasants' revolt, 200-223, 223-252; Lollardry in London, 327-331, (Beard gives a reference from Trevelyan on the life of Wyclif.)

The following topics are to be found in Chevney's Readings: Events of the Hundred Years' War, 233; Through the Treaty of Bretigny, 249; Ouarrel over appointments from Rome, 249-255; Black Death, 255-258; Peasants' revolt, 258-266; Wyclif and the Lollards, 266-271; English language and literature, 272-275; Growth of powers of parliament, 270-283: Henry V. 283-280: Joan of Arc. 280-205: Wars of the Roses. 206-305: Report of voyage of Cabot, 311-314.

The following topics are to be found in Robinson's History of Western Europe: Growth of nationality in France, 298-302, 303-306; The popes and the councils, 307-320; The Italian cities, 321-320; The renaissance.

320-346; Invention and discovery, 347-352.

The following topics are to be found in Robinson's Readings: The Italian despots, 210-220; Dante, 220-223; Petrarch, 223-225; The artists of the renaissance, 227-230.

FURTHER READINGS

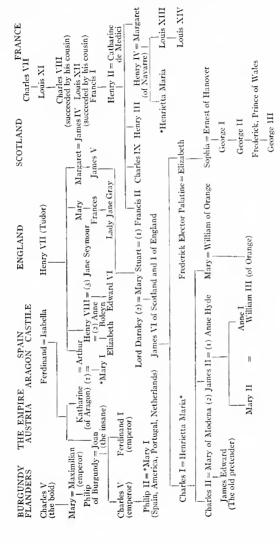
Cheyney, European Bockground of American History, pp. 3-78: Harpers. (The best account of conditions in Europe that led to the great geographical discoveries of the age.)

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. I, Chapters XVI and XVII: Macmillan. (A very complete and scholarly account of the renaissance.)

Maps and Plans

Shepherd, Historical Atlas. The Wool-raising Districts of England and Wool-manufacturing Towns of Flanders, p. 76; Europe at Time of Peace of Bretigny, p. 77; France Time of Henry V, p. 81; The Great Schism, p. 81; England and France Reign of Henry VII, p. 84; Italy about 1494, p. 90; Ecclesiastical Map of Europe in Middle Ages, pp. 04-05; Plan of Rome in the Middle Ages, p. 96; Discovery and Exploration, pp. 105-111.

THREE HUNDRED YEARS OF ENGLISH RULERS WITH THEIR PRINCIPAL CONTEMPORARIES



* The same person.

CHAPTER XIII

THE PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION

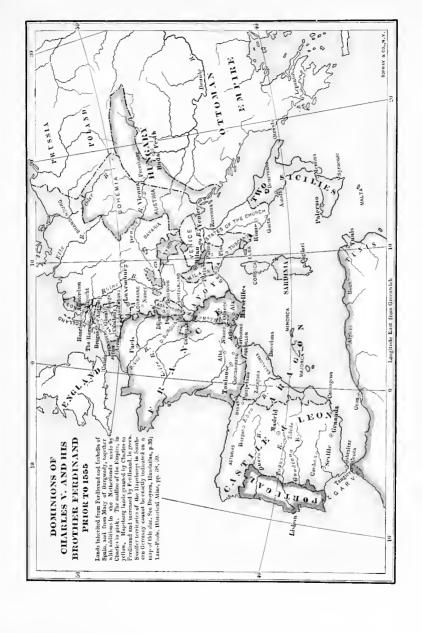
96. Europe at the Opening of the Protestant Reformation.

— When studying the history of Europe during the fifteenth

Charles the Bold

and sixteenth centuries, one is impressed with the number of marriage alliances between the reigning European families. Contemporary with the great figures of the renaissance was Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy in eastern France. His ambition was to conquer the territory of Lorraine, lying between his own large duchy and the region of Flanders which also belonged to him, and to form of the three a compact state of good size, over which he hoped to rule as king, no longer under the overlordship of France. To further his design he married his daughter, the Princess Mary of Burgundy, to Maximilian, Archduke of Austria, thereby receiving the support of the Austrian house. For a time he was very successful in his intrigues against France; but he was finally thwarted by the cunning of Louis XI, and fell in an unsuccessful attempt to bring the liberty-loving Swiss to subjection. Louis XI and his son, Charles VIII, greatly strengthened the French monarchy by acquiring a number of former feudal provinces, such as Burgundy, Provence, and Brittany.

Creation of the Spanish Monarchy The Spanish monarchy began in a marriage compact. When Ferdinand of Aragon came to the throne the Spanish peninsula was divided into the states of Aragon, Castile, and Leon in the north, and Portugal and Granada in the south. The marriage of Ferdinand to Isabella of Castile and Leon commenced the process of unification of the peninsula. Granada, the kingdom of the Mohammedan Moors, was conquered by the two rulers the same year that Columbus sailed to America under their patronage. For the purpose of crushing all religious faiths except those of the orthodox or state church, Isabella revived the Court of the Inqui-





sition to try all persons accused of heresy. This religious persecution caused the Moors to leave Spain in order that Banishment they might retain their own faith, and since they were the of the Moors: most skilful artisans in Spain, as a result commerce and industry suffered a severe blow. Many were put to death whose only offence was the divergence of their religious views from those of the state

At the fall of the House of Hohenstaufen (see p. 167) Empire of Sicily had been granted to Pedro of Aragon, from whom Charles V

Ferdinand inherited the Spanish claim to the southern part of Italy and Sicily. The possessions and European prominence of the heir of Ferdinand were of great wealth and extent. Ferdinand's daughters were married to Philip of Burgundy, Charles the Bold's grandson, and to Henry VIII of England. Philip died while his son Charles was still an infant. Maximilian so arranged matters in Germany that at his death the diet elected Charles emperor. Charles



CHARLES V

was thus ruler of the Spanish peninsula, with its vast territorial claims in America; Duke of Burgundy, with its vassal states in the "Low Countries," famed for their manufacturing wealth; Archduke of Austria, emperor of the German empire, and king of the Two Sicilies. (See table, p. 275, for relationships.)

For all his power Charles V had three difficult problems Three Probto face: the Turks menaced his Eastern possessions; France lems of disputed his supremacy in Italy; finally, the Protestant Reign Reformation began within his dominions. The Turkish sultan at this time was Suleiman the Great. His possessions

Charles'

Suleiman the Great extended from Egypt to Hungary and included all the ports on the Red, Black, and eastern Mediterranean seas. To aid his ally, the king of France, Suleiman, with an enormous army, besieged Vienna, the capital of the archduchy of Austria, and was with difficulty repelled by the Austrians. During his lifetime the power of the Turk was greatly feared by the Christians, but at the close of his reign the Turkish empire became weak, and from that time has steadily declined to the weak condition of today.

Charles VIII invades Italy

invades Ital

1494

Effect of his Invasion on Europe

Career of Savonarola Charles VIII of France revived a claim to the kingdom of Naples and Sicily and invaded Italy. Although he was opposed by Ferdinand of Spain, the Emperor Maximilian, Pope Alexander VI, and the petty tyrants of many Italian cities, he was for a time successful, owing to the lack of confidence each of the allies felt in the others, and to the welcome given him by the Italians, who were trying to overturn the governments of the tyrants; but his army was not used to the luxurious living of the Italians and soon lost its effectiveness, and Charles was then forced to retreat from Italy. His invasion had greater influence on the development of France than on Italy, because, as this was the period of the intellectual and artistic supremacy of Italy, western Europe received the fruits of the Italian renaissance, theretofore confined to the peninsula.

In Florence, then at the height of its splendor under the Medici, when Charles VIII invaded Italy, the prior of the monastery of St. Mark, Savonarola, had for some time been prophesying that a great disaster was about to overtake Italy. The coming of Charles seemed a fulfilment of this prophecy, and as the Medici were forced to flee from the city by a popular revolt, Savonarola assumed the leadership of the people and aided in the establishment of a conservative republic. From his pulpit in the great cathedral he attacked the vices of the people and bade the Florentines, the most pleasure-loving people on earth, to forsake the vanities of their way of living, and so impressed them that they burned their jewels, cards, even books and pictures, in a public sacrifice in the square, and for two years enthusiastically

followed his guidance. He made the error of allying himself with one faction of the people, and he had too many enemies and the populace was too pleasure loving to uphold his puritanism. Alexander VI hated him because he had encouraged the invasion of Italy by Charles VIII, and caused his downfall. Savonarola was tried, condemned, and executed on the charges of heresy and treason. Although Savonarola was excommunicated by the pope for declaring that a pope who erred should be removed from office, he was not in

reality a heretic. He had no intention of leaving the church or of changing her teachings.

Francis I, the distant cousin of Charles VIII, revived the French claim to Italy. Handsome and graceful, he posed as the "gentleman king" and as the patron of the renaissance in France. After a brilliant passage of the Alps he defeated the allied army and captured Milan. Pope Leo X, a son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, made a treaty with Francis.



France makes the Concordat of 1516 with the Pope

Francis I of

SAVONAROLA

the Concordat of 1516, which gave Francis the right to appoint all high clerics in France. In return for the papal permission to annex Milan, Francis agreed to aid the pope in regaining Florence for the family of the Medici. So it was with Francis I that Charles V had to contend in Italy. From his father Charles inherited a claim to Burgundy, which had been annexed to France by Louis XI, and from his grandfather, Maximilian, a claim to Milan.

97. Germany on the Eve of the Protestant Revolution. - Rise of Aus-The fifteenth century saw a growth of national feeling in tria and the Hapsburg England, France, and Spain. In France the factional war Family

between the Burgundians and Armagnacs and the prolonged strife with England ended in a burst of patriotic feeling. which strengthened the French monarchy. In England the Wars of the Roses closed with the accession of Henry Tudor and the subsequent centralization of authority in the king. In Spain the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella and the conquest of the Moors paved the way for the despotism of Charles V and his son, Philip II. The Holy Roman Empire established by Otto in the tenth century had developed no such strength as its rivals. This was due to a lack of national feeling among the diverse races under its rule. As Voltaire wittily said of it some three centuries later, it was neither Holy, Roman, nor an empire. It was constantly at variance with the established authorities of the church; it was ruled by German princes in the interest of German states; and it consisted of a number of states whose rulers possessed more actual power than did the emperor.

Rudolph of Hapsburg

Seven or more of these petty rulers claimed the right of electing the emperor and constituted the electoral diet. After the downfall of the Hohenstaufen family the imperial authority was claimed by several of the higher nobility, and in 1273, in order to restore peace, the electors decided to choose for their ruler a man who would rouse neither fear nor jealousy. Their choice, Count Rudolph of Hapsburg. proved much more able than they had dreamed. Instead of resuming the vain struggle to reunite the utterly dissimilar parts of the empire, Italy and Germany, he wisely resolved to make himself head of the German princes and to leave Italy to the pope. By so doing he won the aid of the papacy in his war to recover some of his ancestors' domain from the king of Bohemia. Some of his successors were more successful in carrying out this policy and built up an important dominion out of the Hapsburg possessions, which was the chief factor in keeping the title in their house.

The Golden Bull 1356 The two causes of decentralization were, first, the lack of system concerning the election of the emperor, which had resulted in frequent contests for the imperial title, and hence, second, lack of respect for the emperor. In order to counter-

act these evils an imperial law was enacted, which is called The number of electors thereafter was to the Golden Bull. be seven — four lay princes (the King of Bohemia, the Duke of Saxony, the Margrave of Brandenburg, and the Count of the Rhenish Palatinate) and three ecclesiastical princes (the Archbishops of Treves, Maintz, and Cologne). The members of this diet met at Frankfort and had higher rank than other princes of the empire and their lands could not be divided, but must descend to the eldest son or elected successor of the former elector. The importance of this law on the development of Germany in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries cannot be easily measured. It is certain that it gave to the electoral princes far greater power than they had hitherto exercised, and that it was, on that account, an important reason for the failure of German unity.

The Germany of Charles V was made up of several hundred The Germany states, varying in size from the territory of a single city, such of Charles V as Hamburg, or the hereditary estate of a knight, to those of a duchy like Bayaria or a kingdom like Bohemia. For a number of generations the imperial title had been held by the head of the Hapsburg family, the archdukes of Austria, but the powers of the emperor were extremely shadowy and mostly honorary. The political weakness of Germany was intensified by the strong class feeling. The people were divided into Social Classes nobles with large territories, knights with a single castle or manor, freemen of the towns, or burghers, and serfs. The knights hated the oppression of the nobles, but were unable Conditions to hinder it; in revenge they were driven to rob and abuse those weaker than themselves. Many knights along the Rhine made their entire living by demanding tolls from fitted for the passing merchants and travellers — a species of highway robbery. The burghers, snug in their wealthy town homes, envied the political supremacy of the nobles; while the nobles reciprocated by envying the wealth of the townsmen and seeking by every hook or crook to deprive them of it. Beneath them all the serf labored on almost hopelessly: everyone took it for granted that the serf had to suffer; yet forces

that made of Germany a Field well Growth of Heresv

were then operating to better his condition — the renaissance was beginning in northern Europe.

The conditions in the church which encouraged the growth of heresy were these: luxurious and extravagant living on the part of many of the higher clergy; excessive taxation to meet the cost of this living, and the weakening of the moral purpose of many clergymen, or, in other words, a decline in strict living and hard thinking. These evils, as well as others, had long been recognized. The various church councils mentioned above had considered them.



ERASMUS

Many earnest men in the church had tried individually to call attention to them and to correct them: for example Wyclif, Huss, and Erasmus. The German humanists attacked the methods and subjects of instruction in the universities, which were all controlled by the church, alleging that the very men who should have been the leaders in education were becoming shiftless and careless in their lives and in their learning. The writings of the humanists did much to prepare

the way for Luther, and they were his chief supporters in the attack on the monastic orders.

Erasmus and Luther compared

98. Life and Work of Martin Luther to the Diet of Worms. - Whether one regards the Protestant Reformation as a step forward or as a serious setback to the progress of mankind, it is

necessary to accept the work of Martin Luther as having had a profound influence on the later history of European civilization. Erasmus believed in a reform in the church, but he had "a strong love of peace and a sincere horror of the tumult" raised by Luther. He believed that there was room within the Roman Church for both the extreme papal party and the enthusiastic reformers, and advised the latter to avoid stirring up an irremediable war until a church council could be held to put an end to the evils complained of. Although he was at first on terms of good understanding with Luther, the latter's violent and often ill-considered attack on the papacy alienated him and caused him to criticise Luther severely. To Luther most things were either absolutely right or else entirely wrong, and he had little sympathy with the broader humanist who maintained that there is good in every man and that mankind, on the whole, is

getting better. In order to understand Luther's point of view, a brief study of his life will be helpful.

"In the old days when Columbus was meditating his momentous vovage and Richard III was about to murder his nephews in the Tower," Martin Luther was born of peasant parents, who were very ambitious for his future. He studied in various monastic schools and then entered Erfurt University, where he first became acquainted with the new learning, but he preferred the scholastic method. At



MARTIN LUTHER

his father's request he began the study of law, after graduating with high honors from his university. After two months' study he abandoned law for theology, and entered an Augustinian monastery, where he was so zealous in observing all fasts, penances, and other requirements that his health broke down. He welcomed the invitation of a brother monk to make a pilgrimage to Rome, but the decline of spiritual ideals there dissatisfied and shocked him.

Soon after his return he was offered the professorship of Luther as a theology at Wittenberg, where he lectured on the Bible. Humanist In the study necessary to prepare these lectures he became converted to humanism, and in his revolt from the teachings of Aristotle, so conspicuous in the scholastic system, he

Early Life of Luther, 1483

urged his friends to study the Bible and the works of the early church fathers, especially those of Augustine. It was at this time that he became acquainted with many humanists.

The Theory of Indulgences

A few years later he publicly attacked the teachings of the church. The circumstances were as follows: In order to obtain money for completing the magnificent church of St. Peter at Rome, Pope Leo X issued indulgences, papal decrees remitting the penalties which sinners would have to undergo in Purgatory. Indulgences were purchased by devout members of the church, who paid according to their means, in order that the soul of some dead friend or dear one might have release from suffering. The indulgences were based on the idea that there is a spiritual treasury of good works, in which is recorded every good deed or religious service done on earth, and upon this treasury the needy souls of the dead might draw to balance their accounts of good and evil deeds. The theory of indulgences was a beautiful one; unfortunately a few church officials, eager to collect more money for the pope, urged everyone to provide himself with one of these indulgences, misleading the people to believe that the church remitted guilt for sins to those who purchased indulgences — an idea entirely contrary to the doctrines of the church.

The Ninetyfive Theses 1517 In answer to the mistaken conception of indulgences preached by Tetzel, a monk who was then engaged in selling them, Luther drew up a document containing ninety-five theses, or statements, and posted it upon a door of the church in Wittenberg. Among the propositions set forth therein were these: first, preachers of indulgences are wrong in saying that an indulgence frees a man from the punishment for sin; second, the man who gives to the poor and needy does better than he who buys indulgences; third, the pope, if he knew the methods of the sellers of indulgences, would not countenance them; fourth, the raising money in such a way suggests the question that, since the pope is the wealthiest ruler in Christendom, why does he not use his own resources for the completion of St. Peter's. When accused of attacking the

power of the pope, Luther replied in a letter to the pope affirming his loyalty to the papacy.

For two years the papal party made vain efforts to induce Debate at Luther to visit Rome to recant (deny) the ninety-five theses. but the pope was unable to bring any pressure to bear on the Wittenberg professor, perhaps because of the political tangles of the day. In 1510 the old emperor, Maximilian, died and the pope was much concerned in regard to his successor. It soon appeared that Luther did not at heart accept the papal supremacy. In a debate arranged between a champion of the orthodox views and Luther and his partisans. the monk. Eck. forced Luther to take a stand outside of the church. Luther declared a church council superior to the pope, and this belief Eck proved was the very heresy for which Huss had been convicted. Within a year Luther wrote: "I have hitherto taught and held all the opinions of John Huss unawares; we are all Hussites without knowing it."

Leipsic

When Eck returned from Rome, bringing with him a Luther burns papal bull ordering Luther to recant, the latter boldly attacked the papacy by publicly burning a copy of the papal bull and of the church laws. Luther became recognized by all classes as the leader of a nationalist movement to liberate Germany from the dictation of the pope. "Luther himself was astonished at the almost universal response to his appeal. The course of events reacted on him, hurrying him along from a position of humble protest to the leadership of all the revolutionary forces of the time." Such an open and spectacular attack upon the church provoked Charles V to summon a diet of the empire at Worms to consider what attitude the government should take toward this movement.

the Papal Bull

99. The Diet of Worms and its Consequences. - Charles Election of had been elected emperor, defeating Francis I and another candidate for the office. He was a devout Catholic, and his plodding mind disliked changes in faith. He felt that, if the Germans succeeded in freeing themselves from his leadership in matters of religion, they might attempt to win political independence as well; but owing to the friendship felt for

the Emperor

Luther by powerful German princes, he desired to act cautiously. Charles, after considering and rejecting a plan proposed by Luther and endorsed by Erasmus to call Luther before a specially constituted court of impartial churchmen. decided to summon him to attend the imperial diet, then in session at Worms. Having received the emperor's promise of safe-conduct while in attendance, Luther set out from Wittenberg with the good wishes of his university and town

Luther before the Diet

Early in 1521 Luther appeared before the emperor and his diet at Worms. "Few moments in history have been so dramatic and so decisive as that in which Luther appeared before the emperor. . . . The proceedings were short and simple. An officer first warned the prisoner at the bar that he must say nothing except in answer to the questions asked him." He was then asked if he had written the books attacking the papacy, and whether he still believed the statements he had set down therein, or was willing to recant. In reply Luther acknowledged the books, but unwilling to answer the second part of the question without being allowed to defend his views in debate, requested a day's delay. On the following day Luther gave his answer: "Unless I am convinced by Scripture or by right reason, I neither can nor will recant anything." Because he had the emperor's promise of safe-conduct he was allowed to depart without hindrance. Upon his way home he was seized by a party of his friends and taken to the strong castle of Wartburg, where he spent the next few months hidden from the officers of the empire.

Luther is banned by the Empire

Already excommunicated from the church, Luther was at once pronounced an outlaw by the diet in the Edict of Worms. An outlaw, or man under the ban of the empire, could neither be sheltered nor fed by a loyal subject. The diet declared Luther's teachings a mass of heresies and forbade anyone printing, selling, or reading his books.

Revolution and Disorder in Germany

Luther's teachings were eagerly seized upon by the discontented of all classes. Monks left their monasteries, broke their vows, and appropriated the property belonging to the church. Zealous knights turned the situation to their own advantage by making war upon princes. Throughout Germany revolution began to lift its head. At Regensburg a diet of the Catholic princes formed an agreement to stand together against the inroads of the new doctrines in their states, and made plans for reform within the church. Scarcely had this diet adjourned when a rebellion broke out among the peasants, who demanded reforms in government and church. Peasant revolts were not uncommon during the middle ages; for example the peasants' revolt in England in the fourteenth century, that "gigantic strike of English laborers." Luther himself had told the nobles that the times when they could act tyrannically had passed away. The demands of the German peasants, as expressed in the Twelve Articles, do not seem excessive. They asked that each parish be allowed to choose its own pastor, that serfdom be abolished, that taxes and forced labor be reduced, and that many of the old free German customs be restored to them. But the leaders were unable to restrain the peasants from The Peasants' acts of violence and murder, and there ensued a terrible Revolt social war. For a time it semed as if the rebels would overturn the existing order of things; even Luther's protector. the Elector of Saxony, said that if it was the will of God that the peasant rule, he would not resist. Dismayed at the state of anarchy. Luther sided with the government against the common people, declaring that the demand for the abolition of serfdom on religious grounds was unjustifiable. He urged the nobles to crush the revolt, thereby losing the confidence of the common people. The peasants were speedily overpowered by the rallied nobility, but Luther's work was done; it was left for his successors to carry on the reforming movement.1

100. Charles V and the Protestant Revolt. - Soon after Attacks on the diet at Worms, Charles V was obliged to cease considering the question of heresy and to busy himself against the attacks of his most dangerous rival, Francis I, who was then in alliance with the papacy. After a short campaign he defeated

Charles' Empire

¹ The quoted passages are from The Life and Letters of Martin Luther by Dr. P. Smith, Houghton Mifflin Co.

Francis and took him prisoner. The balance of power was now turned in favor of Charles. Francis sued for peace on humiliating terms, but soon was again at war, for the pope opposed the designs of Charles. At the instance of the pope the Sultan Suleiman at this time invaded Austria, while the combined papal and French armies threatened Charles in Italy. Here the emperor showed his ability to command. His army struck swiftly at Rome, and the capital fell. Never, since the days of the barbarian invasions, had the papal city suffered such humiliation.

Diets of Speyer While Charles was thus occupied in Italy, the first Diet of Speyer (1526) determined that each ruler should decide for himself what religion should prevail in his own domain. Temporarily supreme in Italy, Charles turned his attention to Germany and attempted to enforce the legislation concerning Lutherans. At the second Diet of Speyer (1529) he ordered his subjects to obey the Edict of Worms. The Elector of Saxony and other princes protested against this action, from which circumstance the Lutheran party became known as Protestants. To his brother Ferdinand, who had at last beaten back the Turks, Charles now gave his possessions in Austria. By marriage Ferdinand acquired Hungary and Bohemia, and thus founded the powerful state which has developed into the dual monarchy of today (Austria-Hungary).

"Protestants" Origin of the Dual Monarchy

Augsburg Confession

Peace of Augsburg 1555 Terms and Defects Finding the Protestants too strong, Charles determined to ascertain their views in order that he might intelligently oppose them. At the Diet of Augsburg the Protestants presented, in the famous Augsburg Confession, a complete statement of the views of the Lutheran Church. For nearly a generation Charles vainly attempted to check the growth of Protestant belief. In 1555 a religious peace was made between the Roman Catholic and Lutheran parties. This compromise provided that each ruler could choose his own faith, and thereafter his subjects must adopt his religion or emigrate; but if an ecclesiastical prince adopted the new religion he must give up his lands to the church. There were two points of weakness in this treaty. It failed to recognize a new and rapidly increasing sect founded by John Calvin,

and it provided no means of enforcing the clause concerning land.

In the same year, wearied with the many problems of his reign, Charles V resigned the throne and retired to a monastery, where the few remaining years of his life were spent. Since 1546 the body of Martin Luther had been resting in the old church at Wittenberg, upon whose doors he had posted the declaration of independence of the German church.

101. Protestantism in France. — Francis I was as zealous in Life of Calvin

attempting to prevent the inroads of Protestantism in France as was Charles V in Germany. Among the Protestants of France was John Calvin, who at the age of twelve had received the education necessary for him to enter the priesthood. At twenty his father decided to make a lawyer of him. During his law course he studied under Lutheran teachers and became attracted to Protestant. doctrines. Driven from France by



JOHN CALVIN

the persecutions begun by Francis I, Calvin sought safety in Switzerland, a land ever known for its liberty-loving people. At Basle he published, at the age of twenty-five, his great theological work, "The Institutes of Christianity," which contains a complete statement of his religious views. At thirty-one he was chosen by the city of Geneva to make important reforms in its government and to defend it from the attack of the Catholic party. For twelve years, until his death in 1564, he maintained a rigid control over the city by means of a consistory composed of the pas-

tors of the city churches and of twelve elders elected by the city council. The consistory nominally supervised the morals of the city, but actually ruled the city. Every sin was regarded as a crime against the state, while the penalties were exceedingly severe. All were compelled to attend church services. Calvin was as severe in condemning frivolity as Savonarola had been. Men were punished for wearing gay clothes, for dancing, even for laughing at Calvin's sermons. It is not strange that heresy to the new faith was punished with proportionate severity. An attack upon the church and the teachings of Calvin was equally an attack upon the state. Two men were condemned to death for heresy, and one of them was burned at the stake. The rule by elders, or presbyters, gave rise to the name applied to the church founded by Calvin; namely, the Presbyterian Church. The work of Calvin was of enormous importance in shaping English, Dutch, French, and American history. His beliefs were eagerly accepted by the Dutch, who passed them on to the English. John Knox, a sturdy Scotchman, took them home to combat the Catholicism of Mary Stuart. The English Puritans carried the Calvinistic doctrines to America, while in France his teachings overshadowed all other Protestant doctrines and caused the terrible religious wars that convulsed that country in the sixteenth century.

The Hugue-

Coligny

Political Phase of the French Reformation

Catharine de Medici During the reigns of the immediate successors of Francis I the Huguenots, as the French Calvinists were called, became very powerful politically. Many of them were wealthy manufacturers, and even some of the nobility adopted this faith. Their leader, Admiral Coligny, a member of one of the greatest of French noble families, secured many concessions from the government. He acted as the counsellor of the young king, Charles IX (see p. 275), and planned to unite the warring factions of France by means of a war with Spain. He saw clearly that the Reformation in France must be effected, if at all, by making it a political rather than a sectarian movement.

The daughter-in-law of Francis I, Catharine, a member of the famous Florentine family of the Medici, was a devout Catholic, and a great stateswoman as well. For some time she was inclined to favor the policy of Coligny. At last the St. Bartholo-Catholic party, which was led by Henry of Guise, whose family had been all-powerful during the reign of the preceding king, persuaded the boy king to order a general massacre of the Protestants on St. Bartholomew's Eve in 1572. At a signal from the bell of the church of Saint Germain in Paris, the gates of the city were closed and all the Huguenots who could be found in the city were seized and killed, among them the noble Coligny. The news of the triumph of the Catholic faction was received with various emotions by the other nations of Europe. The pope sent an envoy to commend Catharine, and Philip II rejoiced to see heresy thus sternly rebuked; but everywhere the Protestants trembled for fear that some new trouble would come upon them. Yet it should be clearly remembered that this was much more of a political persecution than a religious one, as it was to oust one political party from the control of the government and to put its rival in the saddle.

mew's Dav

A war between factions again broke out in France, which Civil War lasted intermittently during the reigns of Charles IX and his brother, Henry III. Finally Henry III was murdered and his distant cousin and brother-in-law, Henry of Navarre, became king of France. Henry IV had been a Protestant, but in order to secure the throne he professed the Catholic faith. That he always was extremely tolerant is shown by Edict of the famous edict issued at Nantes in 1598, which provided Nantes that Protestants were to enjoy equal political rights with Catholics and that the Huguenots were to have the right to fortify and hold certain French towns. He regarded this last clause necessary in order to safeguard the Huguenots against another attack by their enemies, but from the viewpoint of statesmanship, it was a serious mistake, in that it created a class with certain privileges not possessed by other classes.

Henry IV was one of the best kings of France. minister of finance was an honest and capable Huguenot named Sully, who realized the importance of building up

His Character and Work of Henry IV

the industries of France which had suffered during the long religious wars. He lowered taxes, improved roads, drained marshes, introduced new crops and taught the people how to grow them, and protected French manufactures from foreign competition. These improvements were heartily aided by Henry IV. Unfortunately for France, the king fell a victim to a fanatical assassin, and Sully retired from the management of the French finances. Henry IV is a noteworthy illustration of the fact that there is a mixture of good and evil in everyone. He was an indulgent father, a brilliant general, a far-sighted statesman, a just king; yet, his personal character was open to grave criticism and his religious opinions were so broad that many people think he had none.

The Jesuits

102. The Catholic Reformation and the Jesuits. — While reform was going on outside the church, conservative churchmen were reforming the church from within. Two agencies were important in effecting this reform. One was the Society of Jesus, also known as the Jesuits; the other was a series of church councils. A Spanish soldier, named Loyola, conceived the idea of forming a missionary order to be governed by a general, chosen for life by the society. While Loyola was not the first to command obedience, it having already been pointed out in the organization of the orders founded by St. Benedict and St. Francis of Assisi and many others (see p. 135), his military experiences convinced him of the value of discipline; therefore he made it a rule that the commands of the superiors in the order must be unquestioningly obeyed by all members.

Their Objects and Ideals

The object of the society was the reconversion of Europe and the conversion of the rest of the world to a better, purer, Roman Catholic doctrine. Its members chose the methods of teachers and missionaries and were found at the right hand of kings as councillors, in schools as instructors, in churches as preachers, and in the wilds of America, Africa, and Asia as explorers. The common opinion that they believed that the end justifies the means used to attain it exposed them to the criticism that their methods were at times deceitful, but whatever evil may be attributed to them, the

good they accomplished far outweighed the bad. From the standpoint of the Roman Catholic faith their work was of great importance. Because of their splendid organization and fighting spirit, they succeeded in checking the growth of heretical doctrines in France and Spain, and at the same time they founded flourishing missions in far-distant lands. Americans should always hold in grateful memory the names of Marquette and La Salle, the two Jesuit explorers of the great rivers.

For nearly twenty years, at intervals, the conservative Constructive leaders labored at the Council of Trent to correct the evils Reforms of of which the radicals complained and to formulate the position of the Roman Church. To the early session a few of the 1545; 1562-3 German clergy inoculated with certain Protestant doctrines were admitted, but seeing themselves in the minority they returned to their homes, leaving the more orthodox to bring the council to a close. The measures of this council are of the utmost historical importance, in that they mark a decisive statement of the church upon all questions of belief and practice. The teachings of Luther were definitely condemned by the entire church, while at the same time most of the evils in the church, complained of by the radicals, were eliminated.

103. The Revolt of the Netherlands. - The spread of The Nether-Protestantism in the possessions of Charles V led to the revolt of the Netherlands from Spain. These seventeen provinces, situated where the modern states of Holland and Belgium are located, came to the Spanish ruler from the momentous marriage between Philip of Burgundy and Joan of Aragon. (See p. 275.) This "land of the dyke and windmill" contained many flourishing manufacturing towns whose wealth was great. They had endured the government of Charles V, partly because they felt that his interests and theirs were the same, and partly because he had been too much occupied with affairs in Germany and Italy to exercise a strict control over the inheritance he received from his father. But when Charles retired to his monastery and his Spanish-bred son, Philip II, reigned in his stead over them,

the Council of

they became estranged. This resentment was increased when some of the most influential of the Dutch people presented a petition for governmental reform to Philip's sister, then acting as governor, and her courtiers advised her to dismiss it, saying, "Pay no heed to these beggars." Their resentment led them to commit acts of reprisal, and armed bands of patriotic Dutchmen, both on land and sea, flaunted the word "Beggars" at the Spaniards until Philip was obliged to send his most able military governor, the Duke of Alva. This stern army officer saw but one side of

Tyranny of Philip II



PHILIP II

the controversy, the king's, and his measures of increased taxation and of cruel correction of heresy roused the people to a war for independence from Spanish rule.

In 1542 the pope had authorized the creation of an ecclesiastical court of extraordinary jurisdiction, the supreme tribunal of the Inquisition, modelled after the court invented by Ferdinand and Isabella, some sixty years before, for the purpose of checking the growth of heresy in their dominions. Six cardinals

were named universal inquisitors over all Europe, and all members of the church, both high and low, were declared under their jurisdiction. No book could be published without their consent; they could inflict penalties of imprisonment, loss of property, even of death; from their judgment there was no appeal except to the pope. This was the weapon ready to the hand of Philip for the correction of the growing Calvinism in the Netherlands. The Inquisition was introduced; heretics were burned at the stake or buried

The Inquisi-

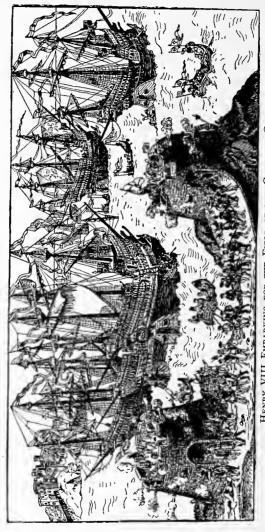
alive; property was seized illegally; rich merchants were outrageously taxed; regular local governments were abolished, and in their place was erected a secret tribunal to try those suspected of disloyalty to Philip. Of this latter court, the "Council of Blood," it is related that one of its judges slept through the taking of testimony against accused persons, awaking in time to shout, "To the gallows with him."

Goaded to desperation, the Dutch revolted under the leadership of William the Silent, Prince of Orange, whose career resembled somewhat that of our own Washington. He was at first loath to engage in a war against his king: the forces under his command were never large nor particularly well equipped; he won few decisive victories; by nature he was silent and reserved. After a series of reverses Alva was recalled and other generals took the field against William. The northern provinces formed a league, known as the United Provinces of the Netherlands, and chose William the Silent as hereditary president, but the southern provinces remained loval to Philip. Like Lincoln, at the very moment of his triumph, William the Silent was shot by a fanatic, but his work survived him. Spain never again reconquered her lost provinces, and was at last forced reluctantly to recognize the independence of the Dutch Republic, which stood as a monument to the work of William the Silent, and also as a tribute to the teachings of Calvin.

104. The Reformation in England. — In the days of Wyclif, long before the Reformation started on the continent, Englishmen had questioned the teachings of the established church, but the repressive policy of the government had checked and almost totally destroyed heresy. During the early stages of Luther's controversy the influence of Erasmus was so strong that England did not take kindly to the German doctrines. Indeed Henry VIII was given the title of "Defender of the Faith" by the pope, in reward for a furious attack made on Luther by the English monarch. Henry had married his brother Arthur's widow, Katharine of Aragon (for this and other marriages see p. 275), perhaps to keep her dowry in the family and to maintain the marriage

Character and Work of William the Silent

Reason why the Reform of the Church began Later in England than on the Continent



HENRY VIII EMBARKING FOR THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD

alliance with Spain. After several years of married life The Divorce Henry suddenly discovered that his marriage to Katharine was sinful, because the canon law forbade marriage to a deceased brother's widow. In arriving at this decision Henry





WOLSEY

was influenced by two motives: he desired a male heir to the throne, whereas Katharine had presented him with daughters only, of whom all had died save one sickly little girl named Mary; in the second place, he had been attracted by the beauty and charm of a young lady of the court named Anne Boleyn. The Roman Church does not sanction divorce, but as Henry had obtained from a former pope a special dispensation to marry Katharine, he sent his minister Wolsey to Rome to argue that the former pope had exceeded his authority in annulling this particular law of the church and that the present pope should so decide, in effect annulling the marriage. Unfortunately for Henry's plans, or perhaps for Wolsey, the pope just at that juncture was in the power of Charles V, Katharine's nephew, and even if he were willing to do so would scarcely have dared to offend the powerful emperor. Wolsey failed to secure the divorce, and soon after his return to England he died of disgrace at the treatment of the king, who regarded him as personally responsible for the failure.

Steps in the Reformation Unable to secure relief from the pope, Henry accepted the advice of Wolsey's successor in office, Cromwell, and denied the authority of the pope over England. The clergy of England were forced to submit to the king's will and to sanction a divorce from Katharine. In deference to his wishes parliament passed the Act of Annates, forbidding the payment of annual taxes to the pope, and the Act of Supremacy, which recognized the king as the supreme head of the English Church.

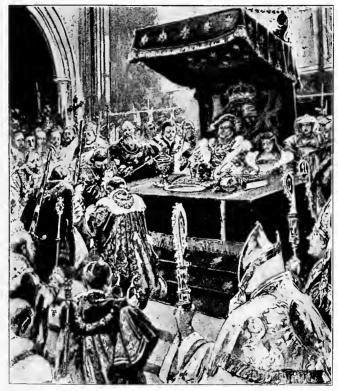
Destruction of the Monasteries Cromwell then urged the king to seize upon the lands of the monasteries. Greedy for wealth, on the pretext that the monks were leading wicked lives, Henry ordered the breaking up of the monastic orders and confiscated their lands and possessions. These he divided among his favorites, creating new patents of nobility; and these new nobles were naturally grateful to the king and supported him in all his policies. This serves to explain why the power of the monarchy increased until the later Tudors ruled almost absolutely.¹

The Chantries

This hostility toward the organizations of the church extended in his reign to an attack upon the gilds, which greatly weakened their monopoly over trade, and during the reign of his son caused the destruction of the chaptries. The

¹ The abolition of the monasteries diminished the number of spiritual lords in parliament by removing all abbots from office. There were left only the two archbishops and the numerous bishops.

chantries were small churches or shrines founded by wealthy and pious men for the perpetual performance of special masses for the repose of the souls of the dead. Special chantry priests devoted most of their time to these services,



CORONATION FESTIVITIES OF HENRY VIII AND KATHARINE OF ARAGON

but filled in their spare moments with teaching. The abolition of the chantries and the confiscation of their property created a necessity for public schools, which were first established by a far-sighted minister of Edward VI.

Character of Henry VIII and of his Government

Henry VIII was cruel and selfish; he used his ministers to further his selfish aims and kept parliament subservient to him; in his treatment of his family he showed an utter disregard for the rights of others. After the birth of his daughter Elizabeth he tired of her mother, and Anne Bolevn was heheaded upon the same block used a few months before for the execution of Sir Thomas More, the friend of Erasmus and Wolsey, who had refused to recognize the legality of Anne's marriage to the king. Henry then married Jane Seymour. who died shortly after the birth of his only son.1 The last vears of Henry's reign were marked by the increasing tyranny of the king. He persecuted extreme Protestants and Catholics alike. In the Act of Six Articles parliament stated Henry's belief, accepting in each of these articles the doctrine of the orthodox Catholic Church.² At the close of his reign the English church was Roman Catholic in doctrine, but it no longer recognized the authority of the pope and it permitted the use of the Bible in English. One of the great achievements of the closing period of his reign was the translation of the Bible into English.

Progress of the Reformation during the Reign of Edward VI Edward VI was only ten when his father died, and accordingly a protectorate was established with his uncle, the Duke of Somerset, as protector. During his administration the chantries were closed, Protestant doctrines were adopted, and a prayer-book in English was prepared. By the Act of Uniformity all churches were required to be uniform in the use of the Protestant innovations. After six years of reigning without ruling, Edward died, whereupon the Duke of North-

¹ Cromwell arranged a marriage between Anne of Cleves, a German princess of a Protestant family, and his king, but Henry was so displeased at the plainness of this bride that he permitted the English church to annul the marriage and the noble enemies of Cromwell to condemn him to the block. Henry later married Catharine Howard, a relative of Anne Boleyn, and soon tiring of her, caused her execution. His last wife, Catharine Parr, outlived him.

² These articles required all Englishmen to believe in the doctrines of transubstantiation, communion in one kind, celibacy of the clergy, sanctity of vows taken by churchmen, private masses, and secret confession to the priests.

umberland, who had displaced Somerset as the king's principal adviser, endeavored to put his daughter-in-law, the Ladv Jane Grey, a great-granddaughter of Henry VII (see p. 275), upon the throne, in order to retain his prominent position. But the people were not wholly in sympathy with the extreme Protestantism of Edward's reign; accordingly they rallied around Edward's sister, the Princess Mary, and after a brief struggle and short imprisonment Lady Jane followed her husband and his ambitious father to the scaffold.

The eldest child of Henry VIII knew that the reformed Character of church in England had annulled her mother's marriage to the king, so it was only natural that the fragile girl, and later The Catholic the sickly woman, should have clung to the faith of her Reaction mother. Mary was devoted to the Catholic religion and to the English people, and she could not feel easy of conscience until she had restored them to the fold of the church. She received a papal legate, and her parliament confessed its belief in the Roman faith by kneeling in his presence. For the few years of her reign England was again Roman Catholic. The old statute against heretics, which had been used both by Catholic and Protestant in attempts to root out religious beliefs varying from those established by law, was again enforced against the followers of the reform movement. For this persecution the queen has come down in history as "Bloody Mary," but there was little of vindictiveness or cruelty in her character. Her whole life was tragic; her childhood shadowed, her health poor, even her happiness in marriage thwarted. She alienated her subjects by marrying Philip II, who hoped to secure the support of England in his wars against the rebellious Dutch. It was chiefly through his influence that she persecuted the Protestants, nearly three hundred of whom were burned at the stake during the closing years of her unhappy reign. Disappointed in marriage, for Philip cared only for English gold and soldiers, feeling the loss of her people's affection, suffering from a complication of serious diseases, Mary made a last effort to hold her husband's gratitude; Philip being at war with France, Mary found a pretext for declaring war against France in

Queen Marv

302 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

1558. Totally unprepared for war, the English helplessly allowed the French to seize Calais, the last of England's splendid empire in France. Within a few months Mary died



QUEEN MARY TUDOR

of a broken heart, and her sister quietly assumed the crown. As was natural for a daughter of Anne Boleyn, Elizabeth restored the Protestant religion, which has ever since been the established church of England.

105. Summary of the Era of the Protestant Reformation. —The Protestant Reformation took place during the sixteenth century. After years of dispute the religious Peace of Augsburg divided Germany into two hostile camps, the Lutherans and the Catholics, which at the close of the century were at peace. Philip II had stifled the movement in Spain, but was unable to do so in his Dutch possessions. The Netherlands revolted from his rule and were practically independent when the century closed. France was Catholic, but the Edict of Nantes gave a certain amount of religious freedom. England withdrew from the Roman Catholic Church organization during the reign of Henry VIII and from the creed of that church during the reigns of Edward VI and Elizabeth. Italy was untouched by the Reformation, but in Switzerland a great movement was destined to influence future history profoundly.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Write in your note-books a report from some of the larger works on

one or more of the following topics:

Services of Jesuit missionaries in America; Dutch life at the opening of the seventeenth century; The life of William the Silent; The career of Wolsey; A comparison of the careers of Wolsey and Becket; The personal appearance and traits of Henry VIII; A comparison of the character and work of Savonarola and Calvin; The influence of the Guise family in France; Events leading to the battle of Ivry, its results; The Schmalkald League and its work; The example furnished by Cranmer. On a map of the world show the possessions of Charles V. On a map of Europe show the countries of Europe about 1550.

The following topics are to be found in Johnson, Europe in the Sixteenth Century: Rivington. Europe at the opening of the Protestant Reformation, 4-89; Germany on the eve of the reform, 90-128; Life and work of Martin Luther, 153-160; France in the sixteenth century, 451-458; The Jesuits and the Catholic reform, 262-269; Revolt of the Netherlands,

316-386.

The following topics are to be found in Beard's English Historians: The origin of the Protestant revolt in England, 274-280; The last days of

Archbishop Cranmer, 281-294.

The following topics are to be found in Cheyney's Readings: Character of Henry VIII, 330-332; Character of Wolsey, 333-336; Early stages of the reform in England, 336-351; Reign of Edward VI, 351-354; Character

304 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

acter of Mary; Career of Jane Grey, 356-357; The extreme Protestant

view of Mary's policy, 358-360.

The following topics are to be found in Robinson's Readings: The expedition of Charles VIII into Italy, 233–238; Spain at the opening of the sixteenth century, 242–245; Germany at the same time, 247–252; Erasmus' views concerning the evils in the church, 253–257; Luther's theses against indulgences, 258–261; Luther's Address to the German nobility, 269–274; The Edict of Worms, 274–279; The peasants' revolt in Germany, 281–293; Calvin and his work, 294–301; The destruction of English monasteries, 309–310; Philip II, 319–323; Massacre of St. Bartholomew, 329–332.

FURTHER READINGS

Cheyney, Short History, pp. 289-328. Cheyney, European Background, pp. 168-101.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. II, pp. 142-173, 232-279, 342-376, 639-689. Vol. III, pp. 182-259, 1-52. Macmillan.

Robinson, Western Europe, pp. 354-458.

Smith, Martin Luther: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Maps

Shepherd, Historical Atlas. Central Europe 1477, pp. 86-87; Imperial Circles 1512, p. 131; Central Europe 1547, pp. 114-115; Religious Situation in Europe 1560, p. 116; Netherlands 1559, p. 117; Europe 1560, pp. 118-119.

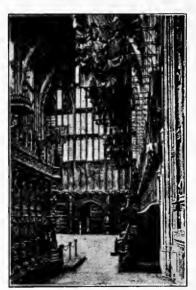
CHAPTER XIV

THE RISE OF MODERN ENGLAND

106. The Tudor Monarchy. — The Tudor rulers were able to reign almost absolutely for several reasons: first, the majority of the land-owning class, both noble and middle, received their holdings directly from these rulers and therefore were in gratitude bound to support them. The Wars of the Roses had created a new nobility, while the abolition of the monasteries had more than doubled the country gentry's holdings. The majority of the members of both houses of parliament were therefore the friends or favorites of the monarchs and had no thought of opposing them. Second. the progress of events in the Protestant Reformation forced the people of England to rally unquestioningly around the policy of their sovereigns. The religious changes were approved by the majority of Englishmen, while the ever present fear of an attempt upon the part of the Catholic powers to thwart these changes in England as they had done in their own countries made Englishmen hesitate to curb the increasing power of the crown lest, in so doing, they weaken the whole nation in a like degree. Third, the growth of commerce and industry as a result of the royal policy made the traders and manufacturers of the towns content to let well enough alone. Fourth, the beginnings of colonization made a strong royal government necessary just then for the safety and protection of the vast colonial prospects of England. Never before had the majority of all classes from the nobles to the industrial commoners in the towns been so contented and prosperous under their rulers, and they preferred to let well enough alone, lest, by asserting their right to curb the monarch, they should fall apart into factions each

Reasons for the Absolutism of the Tudor Monarchy seeking its own advantage at the expense of the others and of the nation at large.

Reasons why England became a Great Power 107. Extension of National Power Abroad. — Before the reign of Henry VII, England had little part in the diplomatic affairs of Europe. The adoption of a peace policy by Henry VII; the balance of power policy inaugurated by Wolsey and strengthened by Cecil, Elizabeth's great minister of state; the defeat of the Spanish Armada; the colonial enterprises of the reign of Elizabeth; and the remarkable intellectual



HENRY VII'S CHAPEI, WESTMINSTER
ABBEY

awakening during the Tudor period - all contributed to make Englandone of the great powers of Europe. Henry VII restored order and strengthened the monarchy by his reforms. (See p. 255.) He concluded a series of foreign marriages for his children (see p. 275), and thus rendered the danger of war with Spain, France, and Scotland less threatening. He also aided commerce by his treaties and by trade laws. With Burgundy, with Ferdinand of Spain, and with the king of Denmark and Norway he made treaties giving protection to English merchants travelling

in those countries. A navigation law passed during his reign required that certain French products should be carried to England only in English built ships manned by English sailors. This strengthened English shipbuilding and was the first step in the development of English naval supremacy. He also aided commerce by granting monopolies over

trade to certain companies like the Merchants Adventurers,1 and thus rendered them able to carry on trade in spite of foreign competition.

Thomas Wolsey, a churchman of humble origin, who had the Balance of risen by hard work through various public offices until he Power Policy had become Henry VIII's chancellor, made France and Spain sue for England's aid in settling their quarrels. said to have preserved the "balance of power" by promising to aid the country most needing help. This policy was also

adopted by William Cecil. Lord Burleigh, upon whom Elizabeth relied for the conduct of her foreign affairs. In the struggle between the Huguenots and Catholics in France, Elizabeth made the power of England felt by both parties; in the Netherlands the fear of English intervention vexed Philip II; while in the wars between France and Spain each side tried to conciliate England so that she would not take the field in support of the other nation. The caution of Elizabeth served her



QUEEN ELIZABETH

well, for the fear of intervention was even more powerful in gaining respect than such intervention would have been. and during the greater part of her reign England was at peace. For thirty years Elizabeth was enabled to extend

Wolsev and

Elizabeth's

ForeignPolicy

¹ Henry concluded a treaty known as the Intercursus Magnus with Philip of Burgundy, by which English merchants were permitted to trade with the Netherlands. This right had never been formally recognized from the time of the Hundred Years' War until it was received by the Merchants Adventurers who were chartered by Henry VII to carry on the wool trade.

the commercial policy of her grandfather, to encourage colonizing efforts, and to complete the work of the Protestant Reformation in England without the hindrance of foreign war.

Growth of Industry and Commerce The persecution of the Protestants in the Netherlands and France drove many Dutch, Flemish, and Huguenot artisans to England. They introduced improved methods of manufacture and greatly increased the output of linens, woollen goods, and silks. Trading companies, on the plan of the Merchants Adventurers, received government protection and opened up extensive trade relations with Turkey, the Baltic countries, Africa, and the East Indies. The influence of Elizabeth in favoring colonization is commemorated in the name Virginia, given to his American colonial venture by Sir Walter Raleigh in honor of the virgin queen.

War with Spain English ships trading with Africa and the West Indies had frequent conflicts with the Spanish, who, by reason of being first in the field, attempted to exclude English commerce. Bold English captains made piratical seizures of Spanish galleons loaded with treasure taken from the plundered Indian cities, and their actions were condoned by the English government, which carried on wily negotiations with Spain in pretended sorrow at such conduct against the law of nations. Eventually Spain allowed herself to be tricked no longer and declared war on England. The other causes of this war were the irritation felt by Philip II because of English interference in the Netherlands, his espousal of the Catholic cause against England's Protestant and excommunicated queen, and finally his claim that Mary Stuart had bequeathed the English crown to himself.

Story of Mary Stuart The story of Mary Stuart is of pathetic interest. She was the daughter of James V of Scotland and Mary of Guise, a member of the powerful Catholic, noble, French family. As the youthful widow of Catharine de Medici's eldest son she had returned to Scotland to become the queen of the Scots. Here she was bitterly attacked by John Knox, Calvin's pupil, because of her rigorous measures against the Protestants of Scotland. Accused of complicity in the

murder of her second husband, Lord Darnley, she fled to England to seek the protection of her distant cousin, Elizabeth. Her great personal charm and the enthusiasm of English Catholics for Mary made Elizabeth jealous of her. Under a pretence of securing her safety, Elizabeth imprisoned her for many years. Mary was finally suspected of complicity in a plot to displace Elizabeth on the throne of England, and by the queen's order she was beheaded.



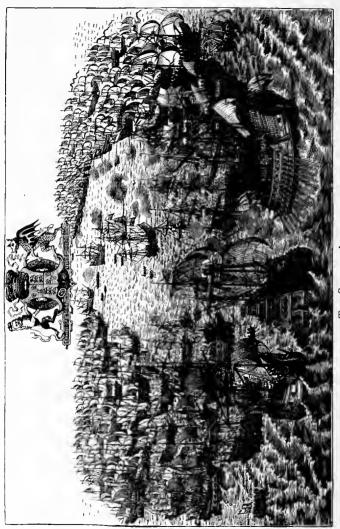
HOLYROOD PALACE - EDINBURGH Mary resided in this palace during her tragic stay in Scotland.

Philip II resolved to avenge her death and to square his The Armada account with England by a great invasion. Gathering a large flotilla of ships, or armada, his admirals set sail for England in 1588. When this fleet reached the English channel, the seamanship of Drake and other great English captains baffled the attack, and the rout of the gigantic fleet was finished by a storm which drove the surviving ships into the North Sea. Thus England wrested naval supremacy from Spain.

During the remaining years of Elizabeth's reign the intellectual renaissance, which had begun with the work of Erasmus and More during the reign of Henry VII, came to

Elizabethan Age of English Literature

310 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY



THE SPANISH ARMADA

its climax. This was the age of Shakespeare, when English drama reached its highest point of development. Besides the wonderful plays of this great dramatist, Edmund Spenser added to the literary triumphs of the period by writing "The Faerie Queene," a poetical allegory of rare beauty of rime and rhythm, and Sir Francis Bacon published a series of essays on philosophical and literary subjects.

108. The Rise of Puritanism. - Elizabeth was well edu- Character of cated and mentally alert, patriotic to the highest degree, although insincere and excessively vain and selfish; yet the strength of her character outweighed the weak points, and her influence on English history is of the utmost importance for good. At the close of her reign England was prosperous commercially, prominent intellectually, politically a great European power, and religiously Protestant. Although she was fond of the beautiful ritual of the Catholic Church, the daughter could not accept the teachings of that church without casting shame on her own mother, for the Catholic Church had never recognized the legality of Henry VIII's divorce from Katharine; yet her naturally tolerant and broad-minded disposition made her favor the repeal of the strict laws against heretics. The doctrines of the reformed The Church English church were embodied in Thirty-Nine Articles which gave the English or Anglican Church a position midway between the Catholics and the extreme Protestants. church organization remained practically the same as that of the church before the Reformation, but many of the forms of the church service were simpler, while the doctrines also differed from those of Rome. This compromise between the The Puritans two churches was unsatisfactory to many of the extreme Protestants, who were called Puritans because they wished to see the English church purified of everything that might suggest the Catholic form of worship, such as the surplice of the priest and the altar decorations. During the first part of her reign Puritanism was confined chiefly to the manufacturing middle class, which was largely recruited by the Calvinistic Netherlanders fleeing from Spanish persecution during the Dutch wars for independence; but during the second

Elizaheth

of England

part of her reign the movement gained ground among all classes as a result of the nationalist and Protestant feeling aroused by fear of a Catholic invasion and strengthened by the war with Spain.

Debasement of the Currency 109. Social and Economic Conditions under the Tudors. — In addition to the effects of the Tudor reigns upon trade and industry (see pp. 254–255), there were other economic changes of great importance. The great gains from the new manufactures and from the extension of commerce were offset by changes in the currency and in the methods of farming. During the reign of Henry VIII the pound and the shilling, the standard coins, were made smaller, while at the same time more base metal or alloy was mixed with the gold and silver. The king received the old coin in payment of taxes and paid out the new coins to his creditors, thus netting about fifty per cent profit. Merchants detected the fraud and charged double prices for their wares, so that the burden fell ultimately upon the poor, who had only their services to sell and had to take whatever was offered.

Enclosures

Increase in the Pauper

Class

The increase in domestic manufacturing caused a greater demand for wool. To satisfy this demand farmers fenced in their fields and began to raise more sheep. The more powerful landowners unjustly took possession of their weaker neighbors' lands and joined them to their own enclosures. Many people were thus deprived of the means of livelihood. Others who had formerly worked farms were thrown out of employment because fewer laborers are needed for sheep-pasturing than for agriculture. Thus it will be seen that depreciation of the coinage and the growth of enclosures caused the increase of a pauper class. Had the monastic orders not been abolished they would have relieved some of this distress, as charity had been one of their chief functions.

Governmental Action to relieve the Economic Distress

The growth of pauperism became so alarming that the government took steps to remove the causes. Laws were passed against enclosures, but they could not be enforced. Like the modern trust problem, the growth of enclosures seems to have been a natural product of the industrial conditions of the age. Governmental regulation was powerless

to check their increase, and society had to adjust itself to the new conditions which they produced. In the matter of coinage relief was possible at some sacrifice upon the part of Reform of the the government. Soon after Elizabeth's accession she issued a proclamation ordering the restoration of the former size

Coinage



COACHES IN THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH

and purity of the coins. Within a year the base coins were collected, purified, and recoined. This cost the government a considerable sum, but the people gained greatly by it in the end. During Elizabeth's reign a number of laws were The Elizabeth passed to regulate and give systematic aid to the poor. These provided for overseers of the poor who should collect and expend the taxes raised for the support of the poor; those unwilling to work were sentenced to labor in houses

than Poor

314 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

of correction; while strict penalties were enacted against vagrants and beggars.

Description of the Houses of the Elizabethan Period

Certain classes showed higher standards of living, especially in the matter of building. Instead of long, low buildings, whose walls of wooden beams filled in with clay enclosed both living rooms, servants' quarters, and, at times, even the stables, there were now constructed houses of timber and stone, their walls tapestry lined or sealed with handsome wainscoting. The dwellings of the moderately well-to-do



GREAT HALL IN AN ELIZABETHAN MANOR

contained stoves, glass windows, costly cupboards filled with pewter and silver plate, wall paintings, feather beds instead of the older piles of straw, and other evidences of prosperity.

Summary of the Tudor Period The Tudors came to the throne when the government was badly disorganized by civil war and without standing among foreign governments; when commerce had not yet recovered from the disastrous effects of the Hundred Years' War; when the social condition of the people was low, owing to the confusion caused by the break-up of the medieval system of landholding and its attendant customs; when the church had forgotten the warnings of Wyclif; when

learning had declined and literature was crude and unformed. Elizabeth handed over to her successor a strongly centralized monarchy, which occupied a proud position in European councils; a foreign trade and domestic manufactures second to none of that time: an advanced state of living in which luxury and comfort walked hand in hand; a well-organized church, purified of the charges of corruption; a revived interest in learning, and the culmination of English dramatic literature.

110. Division between King and Parliament. - The Reasons for causes that enabled the Tudors to rule without taking parliament into great consideration had been removed by the defeat of the Armada. England was now securely Protestant and safe from foreign invasion. Parliament was therefore not so willing to surrender its opinion to satisfy the Stuart kings. This new-born spirit of independence owed its origin partly to the two reasons given above and partly to the character of the first Stuart. James VI of Scotland, who, James J under the title of James I, had quietly succeeded Elizabeth on the English throne, lacked the physical and mental powers which had won the admiration and affection of the English for his predecessor. His ungainly figure, stumbling gait, and stammering speech became a king as badly as did his narrowmindedness, egotism, and lack of tact. Many of his subjects disagreed with him in his conception of the royal power. He believed and acted upon the principle of the divine right of kings to rule, frequently expressing the idea that a king owes his throne not to the people under him, but to God, and that it is, therefore, not only treason, but even impiety for a subject to question the acts of his ruler. Another reason for his unpopularity was his unwise choice of ministers. Unable to recognize, or else jealous of, true greatness of mind, he filled the important state offices with worthless favorites whose only qualifications were their ability to flatter and please him. Had he been a stronger man his subjects might have rebelled, but they bided their time, hoping that his successor would be better.

Charles I was a more manly ruler than his father and

Opposition to the Stuarts

316 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

Policy of Charles I possessed more statesmanship, but he held the same distorted idea of divine right. This led him to attempt to collect forced loans from his subjects, to subject them to arbitrary trial by court martial for not paying these loans, or else to throw them into prison without trial and to quarter his soldiers in their houses without the owner's consent. All

Petition of Right



CHARLES I

of these acts were contrary to the spirit of English freedom as expressed in royal charters or by decisions of the courts of England; therefore the House of Commons in 1628 drew up the Petition of Right requesting the king to refrain from committing these illegal acts, and Charles thought it wise to approve the petition.

The king had apparently given way, but his people soon found that he had no intention of carrying out the law. He claimed the right of collecting tonnage

Illegal Taxation and poundage, which were import and export taxes, without consulting parliament, an act forbidden to the king by Magna Carta. The obliging parliaments of former rulers had made it customary to grant this source of revenue for life to a ruler at his accession, but Charles' first parliament had specified that it made the grant for one year only. It thus gave notice of its intention to keep the matter of taxation in its own hands. Angered at the dispute that arose in parliament over his royal prerogative, Charles dissolved parliament in 1629 and ruled for eleven years without ordering a new election or session of parliament.

Beginning of the Personal Rule of Charles I

Policy of his Ministers During this period he relied greatly upon two ministers: Thomas Wentworth, the Earl of Strafford, and William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. Wentworth's motto was "Thorough," no halfway measures suited him, and at his direction extremely rigorous decisions were given by the courts against any who differed from the king or his ministers in matters of religion or government. Charles collected The Shiptonnage and poundage, sold monopolies for large amounts. and collected a special tax, known as ship money. This tax had been collected by former rulers from the seaport

money Case

towns in order that a navv might be built for coast defence, and was usually willingly contributed as a matter of insurance against ravages by French or other freebooters. Charles, however, levied it upon all the counties in England, and as this seemed no different from regular taxation, it caused great dissatisfac-Iohn Hampden, a tion. country member of parliament, refused to pay his tax. In the resulting trial



WILLIAM LAUD

brought against him by the king's officers, five of the twelve justices decided that the king had no right to collect this tax. Although the verdict was against Hampden, he had won a moral victory by arousing the people of England to action.

Laud was a believer in form and ceremony in the church. Laud's Policy His attempt to force his ideas upon the English church led to the migration of many Puritans to Massachusetts Bay Colony. His efforts to make the Scotch subjects of Charles adopt the English prayer-book and form of worship caused them to swear to a National Covenant, or pledge to restore the Scottish church to the form approved by John Knox. In order to subdue his rebellious subjects in Scotland, Charles The Short was forced to assemble a parliament in 1640 after eleven

hrings on War with Scotland

Parliament

vears of absolute rule, hoping that the danger of foreign war would induce it to rally around the crown, cease what he considered its treasonous discussion of his prerogatives, and vote money for his use. Instead of voting money, however, this parliament began to question the acts of the king. Within three weeks Charles dissolved this parliament, which is on that account called the Short Parliament.

Beginning of Long Parliament

Constitutional Reforms of

Long Parliament

Irish Rebellion

The approach of a Scotch army and the desperate condition of his treasury forced Charles to summon another parliament, which sat for so many years that it is called the Long Parliament. The majority of members in the House of Commons of Long Parliament were opposed to the king's policy as carried out by his ministers. Strafford was impeached of treason, and although no definite proof could be brought that he was conspiring against the government, he was known to be the king's most efficient agent in promoting absolutism, and was therefore executed. It was enacted that parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent; that it must meet at least once in three years; that ship money, tonnage and poundage, and other forms of raising revenue could not be employed by the king except by express grant of parliament. Having thus settled the political question, parliament attacked the church problem, but soon found itself unable to agree. There were four principal groups of Protestants in England at this time. Their views can be best understood from the table on the following page.

While parliament was busy debating what changes in the religious system were desirable, a rebellion broke out in Ireland which brought another question more acutely to the front — whether it was safe to allow the king to exercise his constitutional right to be commander-in-chief of the army which must be raised to put down the rebellion. To justify itself parliament drew up a statement of its case against the king, which is known as the Grand Remonstrance. Believing that the leaders of the House of Commons were in communication with the Scots, Charles went in person to the meeting of the commons and attempted to arrest the five men most prominent in opposing him. He not only failed to find the men but outraged the feelings of the House. one of whose most prized privileges had been supposed to be freedom from such acts upon the part of an arbitrary ruler. A law was at once passed by both houses, taking the command of the militia away from the king and giving it to a general to be chosen by and responsible to parliament. Charles made a vain attempt to seize the military stores Opening of gathered at Hull, but thwarted by the vigilance of parliament, he declared the country in a state of civil war between its lawful sovereign and a parliament of rebels and traitors. The puritan revolution had begun.

TABLE OF PROTESTANT GROUPS

Name	Church govern- ment desired by each	State govern- ment desired by each	Church service desired by each	
Anglican	Episcopal (by bishops)	Strong monarchy	Ritualistic — formal — High Church	"Thirty-Nine Articles"
Puritan	Episcopal (modified)	Limited monarchy	Simple — Low Church	Calvin
Presbyterian	Presbyterial (by a presbytery)	Limited monarchy	Simple	Calvin
Separatist	Independent (each church by itself)		Simple	Various Protes- tant reformers

111. Civil War and the Commonwealth. - The contest Division of the between king and parliament had two phases - the first. civil war, in which a united parliament opposed the royal army; the second, in which two factions in parliament fought for the mastery. At the opening of the war the southeastern half of England, in which were the principal towns and most of the enlightenment of England, was on the side of parliament; the northwestern half, in which lay the great landed estates of the nobility, favored the king. Parliament entered into a solemn league and covenant with League with the Scots to establish the Presbyterian form of religion in

Scotland



England in return for support by the Scotch armies. After four years of fighting, in which parliament won the decisive End of First battles, the king surrendered. Negotiations were opened between king and parliament to determine the conditions of peace. On this question the two factions in parliament differed widely in opinion. The Presbyterians had now attained the reforms for which they had entered the war, namely the Parliament recognition of their religion, and were willing to accept the king's terms, which included the acceptance of their religion

and the relinquishment of many of his pretended rights. The Separatists rightly gauged the character of the king, and knew that his promises were worthless. Thev wished for complete separation of church and state, and were hostile to the monarchy. Moreover, they had leader one of the most remarkable men England has ever produced.

Oliver Cromwell, the victorious general of the parlia-



OLIVER CROMWELL

mentary army, represented Cambridge in the House of Commons. He was at this time a man of middle age, of deep religious conviction, and desirous of extending the freedom well of Englishmen. He believed that each church should decide for itself in religious matters, and had no confidence in the promises of the king. Inspired by his attitude, the army refused to be disbanded by parliament, which now realized that it had created a power that threatened the monarchy. The Scots again began the struggle, this time to rescue the king from the hands of his enemies, but they were routed by Cromwell's reconstructed army. This army, called the New Cromwell's Model, deserves a word. Composed of seasoned veterans, hard fighters, who opened a battle with a prayer and a hymn

Political 1 Views of the Parties in

Character and Influence of Oliver Crom-

and then fought like demons, Cromwell's army of "Ironsides" had an effectiveness in war like that of no other army of history.

Pride's Purge

After he had spent two more years suppressing royalist revolts in various parts of the British Isles, Cromwell was in a position to compel parliament to abolish the monarchy. He sent an aide, Colonel Pride, with a body of soldiers to allow none but Separatist members of the House of Commons to assemble. This arbitrary act is called Pride's Purge. Now in complete power, the Separatist parliament, known as the "Rump Parliament," because it was the part left sitting, appointed a high court of justice to try the king on the charge of treason to the English people. After a short trial, in which he refused to recognize the right of the court to try him. Charles was condemned to death. Early in 1640 he was beheaded in front of Whitehall palace, and England was declared a republic under the title of the Commonwealth of Great Britain.

Trial and Execution of Charles I

The Commonwealth

The new republic had on its hands formidable rebellions in Scotland and Ireland, which declared for Prince Charles. the eldest son of the executed king, but Cromwell was more than a match for these risings. He led his army first into Ireland, then into Scotland, defeating the rebels and taking such a grim vengeance on his opponents that his name became dreaded. On his return to England he established as great a reputation for statesmanship as he had won as general. As president of the council of state he guided the Rump Parliament in its policy until he became convinced that for the good of the nation a new parliament should be chosen. His action at that time was characteristic of the man, for, entering the House of Commons, he strode up to the Speaker's chair and declared in no gentle manner the shortcomings of that body. After he had dissolved the meeting, his soldiers cleared the hall. Soon after this he assembled a number of influential men, chosen by himself, and this "Nominated Parliament" attempted to act as a law-making body. Failing to agree, this body adjourned, leaving its powers in the hands of Cromwell, whom it recognized as the only man in England wise enough to carry on the government. The army leaders now drafted a constitu- The Protection tion, called the Instrument of Government, which practically torate re-established the monarchy, with Cromwell as ruler under the title of Lord Protector

For the next five years Cromwell ruled almost absolutely. and such was his ability that foreign governments were made to recognize the prominence of England. At length, worn out with his long labors devoted to the upbuilding of England, Cromwell died; and when his strong hand was removed, the structure he had reared so faithfully crumbled awav. His son Richard succeeded him as protector, but owing to his incompetency a period of military tyranny ensued. At last General Monk made himself master of the government, called a parliament, and in 1660 Prince Charles was invited to return from the court of Holland. where he had taken refuge during the prosperity of his enemies. The republic fell without a blow, and all England rejoiced at the accession of Charles II.

Charles II

112. Restoration and Revolution. - Brilliant, witty and Character of handsome. Charles II lacked the almost fanatical devotion to a cause that had been the ruin of his father. Too fond of pleasure to deny himself ease and comfort, he was at the same time more tactful in his methods of government and more prudent in his policies. He had no strong moral principles and the personal life of his court and even his own was scandalous. That the people of England were silent at these evidences of weakness in their king may be attributed to the reaction in popular feeling from the hard, unbending, and puritanical rule of Cromwell.

In order to settle the matter of taxation once for all, Adjustment parliament declared illegal all forms of taxation except tonnage and poundage and an excise upon liquors. This Matters put an end to the attempts to revive feudal aids under the titles of benevolences or forced loans. Charles I would have been better pleased with parliament's settlement of the church question than with its legislation about taxes, for it was more in accordance with his desire for exact conformity. A very

of Financial and Religious The Clarendon Code severe code of laws, brought forward by Charles II's chief adviser, the Earl of Clarendon, was passed against Dissenters—all those who disagreed with the teachings, ritual, or government of the established Anglican Church. This code not only barred Dissenters from public offices, but even prohibited them from holding service according to their dissenting views, and provided severe penalties for the infraction of any of its terms.

Charles II's Policy of Toleration

Charles II was at heart fond of the elaborate ritual and certain of the doctrines of the Roman Church, although it cannot be said that he was a religious man. Because of his sympathy with the Catholics he attempted to win the support of all Dissenters by issuing a Declaration of Indulgence. in which he announced that he would not enforce the Clarendon Code. He defended this declaration on the ground that the king possessed the power of dispensing with the execution of laws when in his judgment it seemed wise to do so. To parliament the declaration seemed to indicate two things: first, that the king favored the Catholics; second, that Charles wished to override the parliamentary declaration that the king, lords, and commons are of equal importance in the government of England, by asserting his superiority to the laws of England. The displeasure of parliament was shown so strongly that Charles withdrew his declaration; he had no desire to resume his travels.

The Question of the Suces-

This concession on the king's part did not satisfy the more ardent Protestants. His disgraceful betrayal of England to the king of France was suspected, and parliament began to discuss the question of who should succeed to the throne after Charles' death. The heir to the throne was James, Duke of York, the king's brother and a professed Catholic. A strong party in the House of Commons favored passing a bill to exclude all Catholics from the right to succeed to the English crown. Fear that parliament might pass this bill caused Charles to dissolve parliament. Those in favor of exclusion petitioned the king to call a new parliament, in order that a vote on this question might be taken. These petitioners were opposed by the royalist party, which advised

Origin of Political Parties

the king not to yield. Bitter party feeling arose and each Whigs and side began to call names. The petitioners were called Tories Whigs, a derisive term formerly applied to the extreme Scotch Protestants; while the Whigs called their opponents Tories, a word used by the Englishmen in Ireland to describe the outlaws of that land. In this manner originated the names of the two great political parties of English politics. Refore the matter could be settled Charles II died and the Duke of York was permitted to take the throne as James II.

At the close of the reign of Charles II, the discovery of a The Tory Re-Protestant plot to coerce the king to adopt the exclusion policy caused a reaction in favor of the Tory party, but the actions of James speedily alienated the majority of Englishmen. Stating that the king is superior to laws concerning religion, he openly adopted the Roman Catholic worship. appointed Catholics to important government offices, permitted Catholic priests to restore Roman forms in the church services, and gave other evidences that he contemplated forcing the English people to change their established church.

When the king began to equip a standing army and Causes of the quartered it where he could make use of it to suppress rebellion, and furthermore when he attempted to throw into prison seven bishops who had petitioned him not to force them to read his declaration of indulgence in the churches. a wave of indignation spread over England. The birth of a son to James and his second wife, who was an Italian and Catholic princess, rendered certain the danger of a Catholic line of rulers and a restoration of Catholicism.

An invitation was accordingly sent to William of Orange, a grandson of Charles I and the husband of James II's eldest daughter, to come to the assistance of the Protestant party in England. A descendant of William the Silent, the leader of the Revolution of 1688 was also ruler of the Netherlands, and a man of cold, stern nature, an able general, and a wise administrator. He accepted the invitation, and with a small Dutch army landed on the southern coast of England. His march to London opened the eyes of James II, who found how little loyalty was felt for him even by his army.

action

Revolution of 1688

Coming of William of Orange

326 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

The successful William wisely permitted James to escape to France, whereupon parliament, declaring that James had vacated the throne, elected William and Mary as king and queen of England.

The Bill of Rights The "Glorious Revolution" of 1688 was thus accomplished. To make attempts at tyranny impossible in the future, parliament drew up the third of the great constitutional documents of English law. The Bill of Rights stated and forbade the illegal acts committed by James II. Among



WILLIAM III

its more important clauses are those forbidding the king to dispense with laws passed by parliament, stating that the maintenance of a standing army in time of peace without the consent of parliament is illegal, and asserting as rights of Englishmen those of free speech, petition, and free elections to parliament. In the Act of Settlement, passed shortly before the accession of Marv's sister Anne, who became queen after the death of William III, parliament provided for a

succession of Protestant rulers by a clause excluding James Edward, the pretender to the throne, and his heirs, and naming as successors to Queen Anne the family of Sophia, a granddaughter of James I who had married the Elector of Hanover

Causes of the Thirty Years' War 113. England and the Continent. — While the earlier Stuarts had been carrying on their struggle with parliament, the last great religious war was being waged in Germany. The religious Peace of Augsburg was a compromise between the Catholics and the Lutheran Protestants, which failed to take into consideration other Protestant sects. Early in the seventeenth century a league of Protestant rulers was formed, under the leadership of James I's son-in-law Fred-

erick, the Elector of the Rhenish Palatinate and a Calvinist; and in opposition to this league, a much stronger combination of Catholic rulers was formed. When Frederick was chosen king of Bohemia by the Protestants of the country the Catholic League asserted the right of the Hapsburg family to rule over that country. Both leagues were already under arms and the Thirty Years' War began. After a short campaign Frederick was driven from the throne of Bohemia. Just as James I was attempting to use what he considered

his great diplomatic skill to aid his son-in-law, the war hecame broader. Other Protestant rulers, fearing the growth of the power of the Catholic League, took a hand in the war. first two periods of the war are termed respectively the Bohemian and Danish periods, because the fighting in each period was conducted, on the Protestant side, chiefly by the rulers of those countries. The third period is, for a similar



GUSTAVUS II ADOLPHUS

reason, known as the Swedish period. The ruler of Sweden, Gustavus Adolphus, invaded Germany with two motives. He desired to defend Protestantism against the successful armies of the league, and also to enlarge his kingdom at the expense of the northern German states.

Gustavus is the most imposing figure in Swedish history, not merely for his great generalship, but because of his farsighted statesmanship. He planned the establishment of a Swedish colony in the new world, on the shore of Delaware Bay, and favored commerce by enlarging the navy. His immediate predecessors had conquered the eastern shores of the Baltic, and had Gustavus been successful in his policy of empire building, the Baltic Sea would have truly become

Gustavus Adolphus Character and Policy Wallenstein

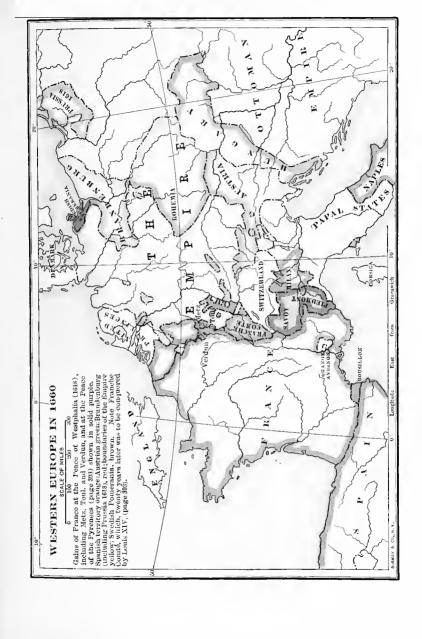
a "Swedish Lake." For nearly two years Gustavus was victorious in the field, but finally, at the battle of Lützen, although his army defeated that of the able, unscrupulous general of the league, Wallenstein, Gustavus was killed. Wallenstein was a soldier of fortune who gave his services to the side that offered the most. He had had a varied experience in this war before the invasion of Gustavus, as he had forced the king of Denmark to cease aiding the Protestants, but had thereafter been displaced by those jealous of his victories. Recalled to the command of the league's army shortly before the battle of Lützen, that defeat hopelessly discredited him, and just as he was about to betray his army to the Protestants in retaliation for the lack of confidence shown by his employers, he was assassinated.

The French Period of the War

The final phase of the war began when France entered the contest against the House of Hapsburg. Cardinal Richelieu. the great French statesman, who was the real ruler of France during the greater part of the reign of Louis XIII, Henry IV's incompetent son, aimed to make France great at the expense of the Hapsburg family in Austria and Spain. (See p. 275.) He desired to add the German states west of the Rhine to France. After ten years more of fighting, just at the close of which the great cardinal died, the Hapsburgs were forced to ask for peace. Accordingly, in 1648, a general treaty was made, which is known as the Peace of Westphalia. Its provisions were as follows: Spain acknowledged the independence of the Dutch republic; the terms of the Peace of Augsburg were extended to include the Calvinists; France gained three bishoprics, Metz, Verdun, and Toul, and the province of Alsace, west of the Rhine; the power of the emperor was permanently weakened by the clause which allowed the several states of the empire to negotiate treaties without his consent; and Sweden was given Pomerania and other regions along the Baltic.

Peace of Westphalia Terms

and Importance The international importance of this treaty will be seen to be very great. The power of Spain was humbled by the recognition of the independence of her revolted provinces in the Netherlands; France became the leader in





European politics; while the central government of the empire was rendered a mere shadow. The social and economic effects of the war were no less far-reaching. From the Rhine to Poland, and from the Baltic to the Danube, Germany was a land of blackened fields and ruined towns. Half the population had been carried off by the great plagues that accompanied the war, or as a result of the desolation wrought by the warring armies. Manufacturing was at a standstill; agriculture was insufficient to meet the needs of the starving people. It took Germany over one hundred and fifty years to recover from the awful losses caused by the Thirty Years' War.

The timid foreign policy of James I had effectually prevented England from sharing in this war, although he would have had the enthusiastic support of his people in a war in behalf of Protestantism. Such a course would have been far wiser than the one he adopted, and might have staved the conflict over the royal prerogative that swept his son from the throne. Cromwell's foreign policy was far different. Perceiving that the newly recognized Dutch republic had far too great a hold upon the carrying trade—that is, upon the business of transporting goods from a country in which they are produced to another country where they may be marketed. - the House of Commons passed a law, known as the Navigation Ordinance, which provided that the ships of other countries could carry to England only those goods produced in their own country, thus effectually blocking any other nation from engaging in the carrying trade to English ports. Although this policy had been first adopted by Henry VII, or perhaps earlier, this ordinance is of such importance that it is usually referred to as the First Navigation Act. This and other interference by the English with Dutch commerce led to a brief war between the two countries, in which the English were victorious. Yet the questions which had caused the war were left unsettled.

¹ An ordinance in this sense is an enactment of parliament, having the force of law, but lacking the executive signature. As England had

no king the Navigation Act of 1651 was called an Ordinance.

Foreign Policy of James I

Cromwell's Foreign Policy



Commercial reasons prompted Cromwell to go to war with Relations with Spain. In alliance with France, the English navy inflicted severe injuries upon Spanish commerce and won for England the island of Iamaica in the West Indies. At the height of his career Cromwell was perhaps the greatest figure of his time in Europe. The French, who had become the leaders of European politics at the Peace of Westphalia, sought his aid and showed him deference. Spain acknowledged England's superiority, and the Netherlands began to lose their supremacy in the carrying trade. We shall see how Cromwell's successor betrayed England. Soon after the restoration of Charles II. Holland renewed the commercial war with England. Again the English were suc- Dutch Wars cessful on the seas, and driving the Dutch government from their colony of the New Netherlands, annexed that province under the name of New York, in honor of the king's brother. After this war the English were willing to make friends with the Dutch, and an alliance was formed between England, Holland, and Sweden which aimed to protect the Protestant countries against the aggressions of France.

Spain and Holland

The ruler of France, Louis XIV, perceiving the mercenary Secret Treaty character of Charles II, induced that ruler to sign a secret of Dover treaty with him at Dover, which provided that, in return for a large sum of money and for French aid in the restoration of Catholicism in England, Charles was to desert his Dutch allies and join with Louis in an attempt upon the Netherlands. It was during this brief war that New Netherland was reconquered by the Dutch, but at the close of the war it was again restored to the English. Discovery of the designs of Louis XIV induced the English to make peace with the Dutch, with whom the majority of the English nation wished to be on good terms. The question of the succession to the throne (see p. 324) thereafter overshadowed all others in England and kept her from taking an interest in continental affairs until the accession of William III, who, because of his Dutch interests, brought England once more into a contest with France. (See p. 325)

114. England and Ireland. — England's relations with

Formation of the Pale

Ireland began in the reign of Henry II, who sent an army to re-establish a native king on the throne of one of the four kingdoms into which the island was anciently divided. Because of this assistance Henry claimed overlordship over Ireland, but the English power was felt only in a small region around Dublin on the eastern coast, called the Pale. In the year following the battle of Bannockburn (see p. 212). Robert Bruce sent an unsuccessful expedition to drive the English out of Ireland. The descendants of the English barons, to whom Henry had granted fiefs within the Pale, had become more Irish than the Irish themselves and bitterly resented any action of the English government tending toward a closer control over the island. a vain attempt to check the fusion of the Irish and English, Statute of Kil- Edward III issued the Statute of Kilkenny, which prohibited intermarriage between the two races, but the action was taken too late. During the troubled times of the Wars of the Roses the English rulers were too much occupied at home to attempt to check the growing independence of the Irish parliament which met at Dublin. When Henry VII became king, an insurrection in favor of a pretender to the English throne started in Ireland. This again drew the attention of England to Ireland, and led to the passage of Poynings' Law, which provided that all acts of the Irish

kenny

Povnings' Law

> of Ireland. Spenser, one of the Elizabethan poets, has left us this picture of the miserable condition of the native Irish in his day: "Out of every corner of the woods and glens they come, creeping forth, for their legs could not bear them; they spoke like ghosts; they did eat the dead carrions, happy that they could find them."

parliament must be approved by the English parliament. In this way Ireland was rendered dependent upon England. and as a result English rulers assumed the title of Lords

The Ulster Plantation

At the close of the reign of Elizabeth the Irish again rebelled, and this induced James I to declare two thirds of the northern part of Ireland confiscated and to settle therein a colony of Scotch Presbyterians; at one stroke punishing the rebellious Irish and planting in their midst a guarantee of English supremacy. This colony, called the Ulster Plantations, produced a splendid type of men, the Scotch-Irish. who had a profound influence upon the building up of our own country. Charles' minister, Strafford, as governor of Ireland, continued this policy of confiscation and repression. After his execution parliament desired to exterminate the Irish Roman Catholics, but with his characteristic love of intrigue. Charles I made the Catholic lords in Ireland believe that if he could have his own way their religion would be respected. This induced them to begin the revolt which was one of the active causes of the Civil War in England. The coming of the Commonwealth saw the bloody repression of this rebellion by Cromwell. The Roman Catholic religion was forbidden; the lands of the native Irish were seized, and disorder was checked. Through all this harsh treatment the Irish people kept alive their independent spirit and a bitter hatred of all things English. For nearly three hun- The Future of dred years thereafter they have submitted to the superior force displayed by the larger island, but upon the horizon of future English politics there dawns the day when Ireland will take her place in the sisterhood of the British empire as a self-ruling part of the imperial federation.

Ireland

115. Social England under the Stuarts. - That England Puritans and did not progress faster socially after the reign of Elizabeth was due to the intolerance of the seventeenth century. All sects were intolerant, Anglican or Puritan in power in turn persecuted all who disagreed with them in religious matters. It is singular that the most tolerant of the rulers was the least respectable. It was an age of extremes, as is well illustrated in the life, dress, and amusements of the Puritan as contrasted with the Royalist. The Puritan wore his hair short, hence the name "Roundhead" applied to Cromwell's soldiers by the Royalists. He dressed simply, fared frugally, shunned what he called "worldly amusements," and was happiest when listening to the long sermons of his Calvinistic minister. The Royalist "Cavalier" wore long hair, costly

Cavaliers

ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY 334

clothing adorned with lace and embroidery, delighted in games of all sorts, even on Sunday, spending the morning at



JOHN MILTON

church service and the afternoon on the village or manor fields at all sorts of amusements.

In literature there are to be found like extremes. Milton, whose greatest work was done after the Restoration, but whose spirit was so clearly of the Puritan period that he may be taken as the type of that literature, served Cromwell as a secretary of state and composed scholarly prose works on public affairs, defending the protector's policy. After the Restoration Milton became totally blind and retired to Milton private life, where he dictated to his daughters his greatest works, among them "Paradise Lost," the greatest epic poem in the English language. In his writings there is expressed the same cold grandeur of thought, the same aloofness from common things that is found in the sermons of the great Calvinistic preachers of the period.

Another Puritan author was the Baptist clergyman, John Bunyan Bunyan, whose "Pilgrim's Progress" gives a clear idea of the religious ideas held by Dissenters during Charles II's reign. In allegorical form it shows the wickedness of the world and teaches what must be done in order to be saved from the results of sin. In strong contrast to these two authors are the works of Dryden and Pope, true exponents of the superficiality of the Restoration period. They, in witty dramas and musical but artificial poems, delight the ear, but show

no deep thought.

One of the most significant indications of progress was the Royal Society organization in 1662 of the Royal Society of London, which had for its object the promotion of scientific knowledge. Among its members was Sir Isaac Newton, who discovered the principle of gravitation. His friend, Harvey, first found out that the blood circulates in the human body. The desire Influence of to find out and discuss new matters was aided by the coffee houses, which began to be common at that period, and by papers the regular appearance of newspapers. In the coffee houses. which displaced the taverns as the fashionable meeting place for neighborhood gossip, the fragrant coffee, the cheering tea, and the wholesome chocolate were dispensed, all of them novelties to the English taste, and an opportunity was afforded to Englishmen to meet and discuss with unfuddled brains questions of public interest and policy.

John Puritan and Restoration contrasted

Coffee Houses and News-

336 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

Newspapers first appeared in the reign of James I, but did not become at all regular in issue until the time of the Civil War, when the great public questions were discussed in their columns. During the later Stuart tyranny official censors were appointed, whose duties were to examine the material of the paper before publication, in order to prevent the appearance of any article attacking the government. With the general increase of personal liberty that attended the Revolution of 1688, this censorship was abolished, and



St. Paul's Cathedral — London Erected during the Restoration Period.

except for a brief period during the time of the French Revolution, England has since had true freedom of the press.

116. Summary of the Rise of Modern England. — The seventeenth century saw in England the most important constitutional progress yet made by that nation, and on the continent the last great religious war. James I asserted his "divine right" to rule over England without hindrance from parliament. His son adopted the same policy which brought forth the Petition of Right and at last the Civil War. After Charles failed in his attempt to rule without parliament Long Parliament passed a series of great constitutional



GROUP SHOWING COSTUMES AND SEDAN CHAIR



REAPING AND HARVESTING Second half of the Seventeenth Century.

laws and began war on the monarchy. Defeated by the generalship of Cromwell, Charles was tried and executed. After a period of republican government the Commonwealth was overturned by the army and Cromwell made himself king in all but name. At his death the Stuart line was restored to the throne, but Charles II endeavored to force a policy of religious toleration upon his people, and as a result the Whig and Tory parties were formed. James II failed to restore Catholicism and arbitrary rule and was driven out in 1688 by the Whigs led by William of Orange. The Thirty Years' War injured the House of Hapsburg and placed France at the head of European politics, while the subserviency of Charles II to France checked the national progress of England. The century saw in England two widely different classes of political and religious thought, which were typified in the Puritan and the Cavalier.

SUGGESTIVE QUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

On a map of the world show the voyages and trading centres of the English during the reign of Elizabeth. On a map of Europe show the terms of the Peace of Westphalia. On a map of England show the division of the country during the Civil War. In your note-books write up one or more of the following topics: The plays of Shakespeare; The rank of Bacon; The Hampton Court Conference and James I's attitude toward Presbyterianism; James I and his favorites; The events of the Civil War in England; The character and place in history of Oliver Cromwell; The Rye-House and Gunpowder plots compared; The trial of the seven bishops (reign of James II); The Mutiny and Habeas Corpus Acts; The history of Germany from the Peace of Augsburg to the Thirty Years' Wars; The character of the restoration drama and literature in England; The work of the Elizabethan seamen; The declaration of Breda.

The following topics are to be found in Beard's English Historians: Elizabeth and English insularity, 307; The religious situation of the continent, 310; England and the continental system, 311; Position of the Bible in Elizabethan literature, 321; James I and the Puritans, 331; The English parliament in the seventeenth century, 330; James I and parliament, 343; The parliamentary crisis of 1629, 347; Character of Laud, 355; The Puritan Sabbath, 350; Long parliament and the peaceful revolution, 364; Charles I and his accusers, 373; Cromwell and parliament, 381; Restoration settlement in church and state, 391;

James II and the Catholic reaction, 404; The protests of the bishops, 413; The revolution and settlement of 1688, 417; Union of Scotland and England.

The following topics are to be found in Cheyney's *Readings*, 408–571: Description of Elizabeth, 361–362, 374–381; Commerce and explorations, 394–403; Mary Queen of Scots and the Armada, 403–408; Views of James I, 418–436; Francis Bacon and Raleigh, 436–443; Petition of Right, 458–466; The impeachment of Strafford, 467–472; The crisis of 1642, 473–478; Trial and execution of Charles I, 485–494; The commonwealth, 495–504; The restoration settlement, 505; Social conditions under Charles II, 515–532; Death of Charles II and accession of James I, 532–539; The revolution of 1688, 539–550; Bill of Rights, 545–547; Mutiny Act, 550; Union with Scotland, 566–567; Conditions in Ireland, 567–571.

FURTHER READINGS

Cheyney, Short History, pp. 280-284, 297, 340-515; Social England, pp. 141-176, 490-498.

Robinson, Western Europe, 465-474; Readings, Chapter XXIX.

Kendall, Source Book, pp. 155-178, 188-208, 225-231, 270-274.

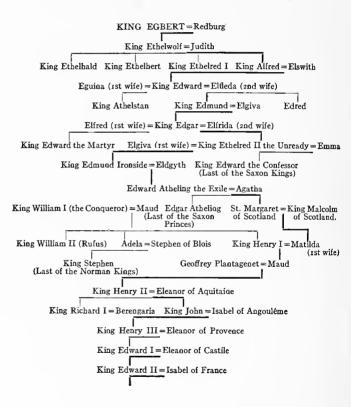
Hill, Liberty Documents. Petition of Right, Chapter VI; Bill of Rights, Chapter IX; Habeas Corpus Act, Chapter VIII.

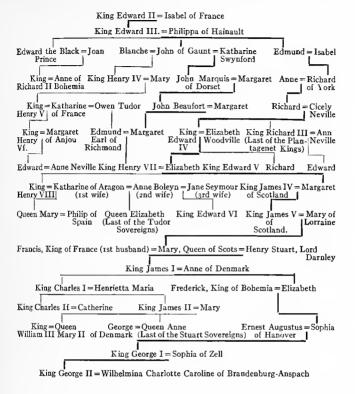
MAPS AND PLANS

Shepherd, Historical Atlas

West Indies and Central America, p. 105; Europe about 1560, p. 119; Europe at opening of Thirty Years' Wars, p. 120; The War, p. 121; Peace of Westphalia, pp. 122-123; British Isles, p. 127.

A TABLE OF ENGLISH RULERS





CHAPTER XV

COLONIAL ENGLAND

Origin of English Claims in America

117. Explorations and Early Settlements before Jamestown. — England's first venture in the field of exploration in the new world was made by John Cabot, an Italian resident of Bristol, England. Sailing under the orders of Henry VII. he discovered land in the vicinity of the mouth of the St. Lawrence. From a map engraved by his son, it is supposed that this expedition coasted as far south as Cape Cod. Upon this discovery rested the English claim to the North American continent. England was slower to take advantage of her discoveries than Spain or Portugal. The latter nations had established colonies in America early in the sixteenth century, but England's first permanent colony was not planted until the reign of James I, although an attempt had been made by Raleigh at the close of Elizabeth's reign. This slowness on the part of England may be accounted for in three ways: first, England was too poor to finance expeditions, and the northern portion of America did not furnish the abundant supply of precious metals which the Spaniards found in Peru and Mexico; second, England was weaker politically than the other colonizing nations of that century, which, by reason of commerce or of greater territorial posessions, were powers of the first rank: third. England was too busy settling religious questions, whereas neither Spain nor Portugal had any religious question, there being but one faith permitted in those countries, and that the Roman Catholic.

The Spanish discoveries were in that part of the new world which was inhabited by branches of the Indian race, which were both wealthy and physically weak. The motives of the Spanish explorers were mainly to secure gold, but they were also fond of adventure. Mexico and Peru afforded

Growth of Spanish Colonies

Effect on Spain both, and in consequence the Spanish empire in America grew rapidly. Vast quantities of gold and silver were taken back to Spain. Wealth so easily got caused the Spanish nation to become lazy and extravagant, unwilling to perform honest labor, and possessing less incentive to build colonies than to make conquests over an inferior and servile people. The Spanish territories in America, therefore, were of vast extent, but did not represent an extension of the nation, as did those of England, but merely conquered provinces.

During the sixteenth century France planted short-lived French Colocolonies which failed because of religious and political dif-nies ferences in France. At the opening of the seventeenth century France established a colony at Port Royal in South Carolina that was soon destroyed by the Spaniards; other settlements, in Acadia on the Bay of Fundy and at Quebec on the St. Lawrence (1608), were more successful. The French colonists were of a different type from those of Spain. The latter were adventurers or soldiers of fortune who hoped to acquire vast wealth at the expense of the natives or else to carve out provinces as large as empires over which they should rule as viceroys. The French were industrious farmers or roaming hunters, who really made the new world a home because of its freedom from political and religious restriction. That they were finally driven out by the The French English was due to the mistakes made by the French monarchs in allowing their favorites to plunder the colonists, in refusing them representative institutions, and in being intolerant in religion. Of all the colonizing nations the French were most successful in their dealings with the Indians, as is shown by the readiness with which the natives fought at their side in the intercolonial wars of the early eighteenth century.

The motives of the English settlers ranged from the desire Motives for to escape religious oppression that actuated the Pilgrims, to the desire for gold that inspired the Jamestown colonists. The disputes between king and parliament during the first half of the seventeenth century prevented the home government from interfering in colonial affairs; consequently the

as Colonists

English Colonization

New England and Virginian colonists were thrown on their own resources and gained strength by self-government. Favoritism had little influence on the English colonies except during the reign of Charles II, and the only religious intolerance which hampered the development of these colonies was that of a few of the colonists themselves; but as the colonies differed somewhat from each other in religious belief, those persecuted were, in most instances, able to find toleration by adopting the simple expedient of moving to another colony. Furthermore the English colonies were strengthened by the short-sighted policy of Louis XIV in forcing the Huguenots to abandon the French settlements for those of England. Over-population of England and the economic distress produced by changing methods in industry also were factors in causing the colonization of America.

118. Virginia a Typical Southern Colony. — Visions of gold mines blinded the sixteenth century explorer in America. The seventeenth century saw new motives at work, especially in England. We hear less of ships loaded with fool's gold and more about the planting of corn and of tobacco culture. Conditions in England at the opening of the seventeenth century favored colonization. The lands of England were insufficient to support the population, the demand for more skilful workmen had displaced English workers with French, Flemish, or Dutch, while many Puritans wished greater religious liberty. All of these reasons were at work in sending constantly increasing streams of emigrants across the Atlantic.

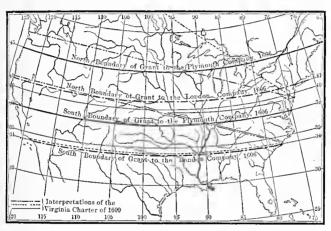
Three Methods of Colonization The English colonies were established in three different ways: first, by chartered companies, such as the Virginia Company, which colonized Virginia; second, by private companies of adventurous men, who, instead of remaining at home as in the case of the chartered companies, sending out expeditions to win profits for the stockholders, chose the more perilous lot of colonists for themselves, as did the Massachusetts Bay Puritans; third, by private individuals or proprietors, such as Baltimore or Penn. In 1606 James I chartered a Virginia company in two subdivisions, the London

and Plymouth, granting to the former the land between 34° and 38° north latitude, and to the latter the land between 41° and 45°. The intervening region was open to settlers from either subcompany, provided that neither should settle within a hundred miles of the other.

John Smith was one of the leading men in the expedition sent over in 1607 by the London Company. By virtue of his superior executive ability he assumed a despotic control over the Iamestown colony of "needy gentlemen" and brought

The Virginia Company and its two Subdivisions

The Charter



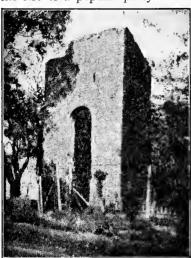
THE CHARTERS OF 1606 AND 1609

it safely through its first two years. The charter granted to the London Company in 1609 is of special interest because it shows the exceedingly vague geographical knowledge concerning the new world possessed by Europeans of that day, and also because it gave rise to many disputes between Virginia and her neighbors over the extent of her possessions. The charter reads: "We grant all those lands in that part of America called Virginia, from the point of land called Point Comfort, all along the seacoast to the northward, two hundred miles; and from Point Comfort, all along the seacoast to the southward, two hundred miles; and all that

346 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

space of land, lying from the seacoast aforesaid, up into the land from sea to sea, west and northwest."

First Colonial Legislature After Smith a succession of arbitrary governors, appointed by the king, gave the settlers little chance to develop politically. At last the tyranny of one of these governors caused the rise of a popular party in 1618. Sir Edmund Sandys



The Labor

CHURCH TOWER AT JAMESTOWN

This picture, from a recent photograph, shows the old brick tower at Jamestown—all that remains of John Smith's famous colony.

and the Earl of Southampton, both identified with the parliamentary movement that led to the Petition of Right (see p. 316), at this time got control of the company in London, and as a result the colonists were allowed to have a legislature, called the House of Burgesses, which was composed of two representatives from each local division of the colony.

In the same year in which this legislature first met, 1619, the first shipload of negroes was sold at auction in the streets of Jamestown. The reason for the in-

troduction of slavery may be found in the character of the first English colonists. They were unable or unwilling to perform manual labor. Smith had to force men to work by refusing them food from the common store unless they had earned it. Before the end of the century the number of slaves exceeded that of the whites, even including the indentured white servants. The latter were of two types: English men and women too poor to pay their passage to America, who sold their services for a term of years to

satisfy the terms of the ship-master; and English debtors, heggars, even criminals who were deported from England as undesirable citizens.

Slave labor was employed in the tobacco fields, and Character of tobacco was practically the only export. To grow tobacco Virginian successfully required large plantations, because it quickly exhausts the fertility of the soil on which it is grown. The cal Results planter needed fresh fields every few years, and for this reason the settlements of Virginia were widely separated by stretches of forest and waste land. The need for the assembly of burgesses from each county is evident. This assembly early showed the independent spirit of the colonists, which received encouragement from the liberal-minded members of the London Company. Such opposition was distasteful to the king, and at the close of his reign a dispute arose between the king and the officers of the company, and a suit was brought in the king's court for the revocation of the company's charter. From the accession of Charles I. Virginia Government became a royal colony. The government of a royal colony, or province, consisted of a governor, appointed by the king, Province the governor's council and a legislature. The council was a group of men, chosen by the governor, to advise him and to control the various executive departments, somewhat as our cabinet acts. The governor and council formed the highest colonial court, from which appeal could be taken to the king of England. The council usually formed the upper house of the legislature, the lower house of which was elected by the people.

The governor received a regular salary, but the power to collect taxes for the payment of salaries and for other ex- The Ouestion penses of government was claimed by the colonial legislatures on the ground that it was the English custom for parliament to authorize the king to collect taxes. The colonists claimed that their legislatures stood in the same relation to their governors as parliament stood to the king, but this claim was not allowed by the English government and became one of the chief causes of the American Revolution. Several governors attempted to compel their legislatures to assent to certain measures of taxation, but with little success.

Agriculture and its Politi-

of a Roval Colony or

of Taxation

Virginia during the Commonwealth After the execution of Charles I and the establishment of the Commonwealth, Virginia at first remained loyal to the Stuarts, even extending an invitation to the future Charles II to abandon his disloyal home country and to come to America to rule. When a fleet, having on board commissioners from parliament, appeared in the harbor of Jamestown, the Puritan element in the colony got control, drove out their governor, Berkeley, and during the administrations of three governors successively elected by the colonists in their House of Burgesses, Virginia was almost entirely independent. The wave of loyalty that swept over Englishmen at the time of the Restoration made the Royalists of Virginia recall Berkeley, a narrow-minded, conservative, bigoted Royalist, who was as tactless in his management of the burgesses as Charles I had been in his dealings with parliament.

Bacon's Re-

It is not strange that during the administration of Berkeley occurred the first serious rebellion of American history. Irritated by the bullying ways of the governor and by his refusal to call for a new election to the House of Burgesses which in 1675 was made up of the same fanatical Royalists who had been chosen at the restoration of royal rule in Virginia, and smarting at the governor's inaction against the Indian raids, Nathaniel Bacon, a Puritan burgess, organized a small troop of volunteers for defence against the Indians. Upon Berkeley's refusal to sanction these measures for the protection of the liberties and lives of the colonists, Bacon led his troops against the governor. Unfortunately for Virginia, there was no one able to take his place when he died suddenly,1 in the midst of his successful campaign, and Berkeley ruthlessly put down the rebellion. But Bacon's work lasted, for before turning his men against the governor, defeating his army and burning Jamestown, he had crushed the Indian raiders on the Rappahannock, and the colonists had no more to fear in that direction. He had also taught them to stand together against oppression, with such success that Berkeley was shortly afterward recalled to England by Charles II, who exclaimed with disgust: "That old fool has

¹ From fever, or, as some believe, poisoned by Berkeley's hirelings.

taken away more lives in that naked country than I did here for the murder of my father."

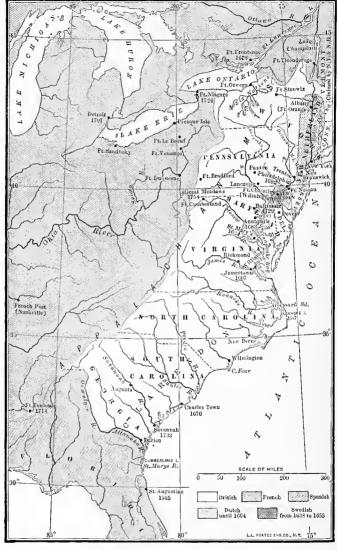
The rest of the history of Virginia, up to within a few Social Condiyears of the Revolution, is the story of royalist supremacy, but a period of constant struggle between the governors and the assemblies over taxation. "The people were clannish and narrow, having little sympathy or communication with the outer world. Political power was for the most part in the hands of the aristocratic planters backed by the middle class. Religion was at a low ebb. The professions of law and medicine were scarcely recognized. The manners of the upper class were often coarse, while those of the lowest whites were not seldom brutal." (Thwaites, "The Colonies," p. 111.) Yet in spite of these adverse conditions, the English love of personal liberty flourished in this colony, and, a century later produced strong men for the cause of American freedom.

tions in Virginia

119. Other Southern Colonies. — A typical proprietary Maryland colony, Maryland, was granted to George Calvert, an English Roman Catholic, and settled by his son Cecil, who received the title of Lord Baltimore. Baltimore governed this colony much as the king governed a royal colony, by sending out a governor, who chose a council and called for a popularly elected assembly. The Maryland Assembly claimed the right of sharing in legislation and of originating taxation. In 1649 the assembly passed the famous Toleration Act, Toleration Act which permitted Christians of any sect to settle on the of 1649 lands of the colony. This was the first expression in law of the American doctrine concerning church and state. Observe that it provided for toleration merely like that of Nantes (see p. 201), not for religious freedom, and that it was passed by a Puritan assembly and signed by a Catholic governor. Such a strange alliance may be better understood when it is known that the charter granted to Calvert stipulated that the Anglican Church should be the recognized church of the colony.

The Carolinas and Georgia were frontier colonies on what Frontier was then the Spanish frontier, and represent the extension Colonies of English rule to the south of Virginia. The territory be-

350 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY



THE MIDDLE AND SOUTHERN COLONIES

tween Virginia and Florida was granted by Charles II to a group of his favorite nobles, although New England and Virginia explorers and settlers were already on the lands thus flung away. Charleston was established in the winter of 1670, and hundreds of French Huguenots, fleeing from the South persecution that began with the repeal of the Edict of Nantes Carolina by Louis XIV, took refuge there. A small party of Scotch Presbyterians located further south, but were driven out by the Spaniards. The lords proprietors would not allow the colonists to make reprisal because England and Spain were then at peace. This and other grievances caused a growth of the spirit of independence in the Carolinas which prompted the colonists to drive out several exacting governors sent from England by the proprietors.

The colonists in the northern part of Carolina were North Caroprincipally borderers, constantly at war with the Indian lina tribes, especially with the Tuscaroras, one of the Iroquois nations. Not until the second decade of the eighteenth century was the fear of these Indians dispelled by their defeat and consequent migration to join their northern brethren, the Five Nations of New York, the most formidable of all the Eastern Indians.

Georgia, named after George II, was founded in 1732 by Georgia General Oglethorpe, a philanthropic Englishman, who desired to make a home for English debtors; for at this time debtors were thrown into jail as if they had been criminals. It was hoped that this colony would serve as a buffer between the Spaniards in Florida and the flourishing town of Charleston, and also assist in increasing the English fur-trade with the Southern Indians. Georgia was defined as the land extending from the Altamaha to the Savannah River; its government was placed exclusively in the hands of the trustees; religious toleration for all Protestant sects was guaranteed; while slavery and the liquor traffic were absolutely forbidden within its borders. The population was composed principally of English petty criminals and debtors, but there were also many German Protestants and Scotch settlers. Oglethorpe was prominent in the early intercolonial

wars. After his return to England in 1743 his successors were unsuccessful in the governorship, and in 1752 Georgia was constituted a royal province.

Hampton Court Conference 120. The Massachusetts Settlements.—During the closing years of the reign of Elizabeth a group of English Separatists had settled in Holland to escape from the vigorous enforcement of laws against Dissenters caused by the national indignation against the Catholic country of Spain. While James I was on his way from Scotland to the capital he was



The Scrooby Church

HAMPTON COURT PALACE GREAT HALL

presented with a petition by clergymen in which they expressed a desire for extensive reforms in the established church. His reply, characteristic of the man, was given before a conference at Hampton Court. He said that they must conform or he would "harry them out of the land." This unfavorable attitude of the king caused a Puritan congregation at Scrooby, England, to

join the Separatists already in Holland. But Holland was an unfavorable location then for a colony of religiously inclined folk, for the armies of Spain and France had been campaigning there for a generation, and consequently the Dutch people had been somewhat coarsened by their contact with the soldiery.

The Pilgrims

After several years of residence in Holland, the Englishmen settled there perceived that they must move again in order to prevent their children from acquiring the characteristics of the Dutch people, and finally deciding to emigrate to the new world, obtained permission from the London Company to settle in Virginia. They crossed the Atlantic in the fall of 1620, but by an error of the captain of their ship, the Mayflower, they were landed on the bleak shore of Cape Cod, where they were forced to settle in the midst of winter. Within the year they had drawn up a document, the Mayflower Compact, which provided for the government of the little colony, and had elected William Bradford governor. They called their settlement Plymouth, because it lay within the bounds of the Plymouth Company's grant. (See p. 345.)

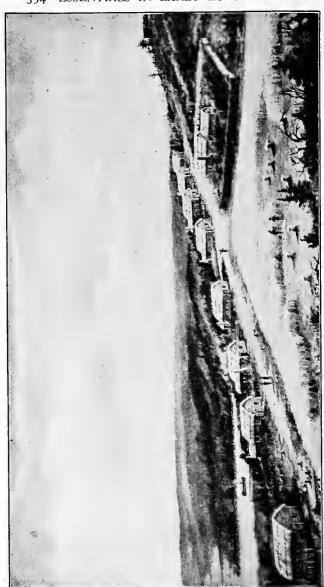
All the colonists met together in a town meeting to discuss Character of public matters. This continued until other settlements were made in the neighborhood, when it became necessary to adopt a representative form of government. They established friendly relations with the Indians, who showed them how to raise corn. For a few years all property was held in common and provisions were stored in a common storehouse. from which all drew their supplies. This system was abandoned when it became apparent that the colonists were not sufficiently unselfish and energetic to carry it on. The life of these Pilgrim Fathers was simple and austere, their faith Calvinistic, and their government more nearly a democracy than that of any other people of that time.

The Pilgrims were fugitives from the worldliness and Reasons for oppression of Europe, whereas the founders of the Massachusetts colony were actuated by a desire to found a colony in which the Puritan belief could be made obligatory, to work out their theories of government, and to furnish a refuge for those of the middle class of England who were fleeing from the harsh policy of Charles I and Laud. The policy of the king, which drew forth the Petition of Right, caused the formation of an association of prominent Puritans, who obtained from the king a charter to establish a self-governing colony. The dissolution of parliament and the beginning Cambridge of personal rule induced the leaders to sign an agreement at Agreement Cambridge binding themselves to carry through their project.

Plymouth Colony

the Establishment of Massachusetts Bay Colony

¹ Because common ownership failed to be successful in an age of general ignorance, selfishness, and strong individual bias is not conclusive proof that society will never be ready for such a reform.



An imaginary picture of the settlement. The building within the enclosure was Governor Bradford's home. The homes of the other colonists are shown on the side hill. The fort was at the top of the hill.

PLYMOUTH COLONY, 1622

Copyright, 1891, by A. S. Burbank

In 1620 these Puritans transferred their charter with them to Salem, their first settlement on the shore of Massachusetts Bay. While Charles I was ruling absolutely, thousands of Puritans left England and settled the towns of Boston. Charlestown, and Cambridge. Boston became the capital. The territory granted this colony included all the land between the parallel passing through a point three miles north of the Merrimac and every part thereof, and the parallel passing through a point three miles south of the Charles and every point thereof, and from the Atlantic indefinitely westward. The establishment of many settlements within this territory made the problem of government difficult, until the expedient was adopted of having each town send two representatives to a meeting of the General Court. or legislature.

In the first decade of its growth this colony had to bear Three Atthe brunt of three different attacks; namely, an attack upon its established church system, an attempt to overturn its charter, and a dangerous Indian war. Roger Williams, the pastor of the Salem church, preached that the church should Roger be entirely separate from the state and that religious qualifications for voting should be abolished. He also attacked the validity of the charter on the ground that the king had no right to grant the lands without the consent of the Indians, who were their rightful owners.1 He was tried by the General Court and banished from Massachusetts Colony. He then went to the shores of Narragansett Bay and with a score of followers established Providence Plantations, which were later to grow into the state of Rhode Island.

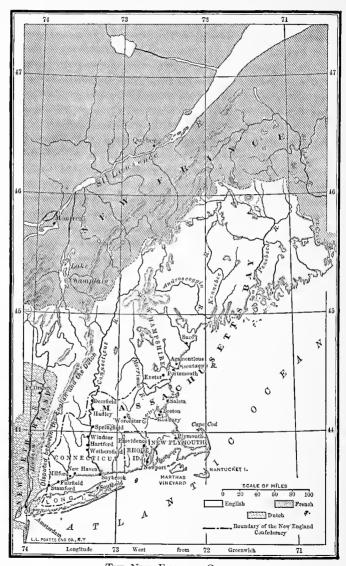
The second attack was made by the non-puritan members The Council of the Council for New England, who desired to control the prosperous New England colony. They induced Charles I to

tacks on the Massachusetts Bay Colony

Williams

for New England

¹ Roger Williams was the first exponent in America of the American theory as to the relation between church and state; but in opposition to his view concerning the right of the colonists to the land, it is urged that the Indians had no conception of land ownership, and that therefore they could not have been deprived of something of which they knew nothing.



THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

annul the charter of the company and to make a new grant of New England to themselves, but the trouble with parliament prevented the king from enforcing the change. The colonists paid no attention to this attack upon their liberties, and the Puritan Revolution put an end to the project. The third danger came from an Indian rising. This was put down by the settlers in Connecticut, and the Pequods, the hostile tribe, were nearly destroyed.

The unit of government in Virginia was the county, Unit of Govbecause of the scarcity of settlements and the great extent of ernment in territory covered by the colony: whereas in Massachusetts the unit was the town, with its meetings of citizens to discuss ginia comand vote upon all important questions. This town meeting elected certain officials, called selectmen, to carry on town business. Although there was much of democracy in New England, it was one in which the principal families took the lead. Chief in importance was the office of the minister, who in most cases deserved the respect paid by the people to his office. The principal occupation of the people was farming, yet there was some manufacturing of everyday articles and the lumbering industry was prosperous. Toward the close of the seventeenth century the trade circuit was well established. Yankee skippers, loading their ships with rum and other New England products, sailed for Africa. where they exchanged their cargoes for negro slaves, which they carried back to the West Indies and sold for sugar and molasses to be turned into rum on their return to New England. Each round voyage thus brought three profits to the owner, and the foundation of the fortunes of many of the oldest houses in New England was thus laid.

The principal towns were Boston, New Haven, and New- Principal port, which were important shipping centres, but there was also a considerable number of country villages in which the inhabitants lived almost as comfortably as in the larger towns. Each town had its public school and near Boston and in New Haven were located Harvard and Yale colleges; the former established in the first decade of the colony's existence, the latter in the year 1700. Moral standards were

New England and in Virpared

high and crime was severely punished. We read much of the ducking stools, stocks, pillories, and whipping posts for the punishment of small offences. The church was organized on the congregational model and church membership was required for citizenship. The people of New England were more religious than those of the southern colonies.

Massachusetts Bay the Mother of Colonies

Rhode Island

Connecticut

New Haven

New Hampshire 1630

Maine

121. Development of American Institutions in New England. — Massachusetts Bay Colony was the mother of the other New England colonies. Rhode Island was formed by the union of Roger Williams' settlement at Providence with other settlements on Narragansett Bay. This colony was the refuge for all dissenters from the Separatist and Puritan congregations of the Northern colonies. In 1630 three settlements in the Connecticut valley - Windsor. Hartford, and Weathersfield — adopted the first written constitution which actually established a government. This document, known as the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut, provided for the establishment of an assembly of representatives from each town and for the election of a governor by popular vote. There was no religious qualification for voting. The importance of this constitution in shaping the form of our government cannot be overestimated. New Haven was founded by a group of extreme Puritans, thirty miles west of the other Connecticut settlements, and remained an independent colony until the reign of Charles II, when, as a punishment for its resistance to his demands, it was annexed to Connecticut. A settlement at Portsmouth. on the Piscataqua River, became the leading town among the settlements between that river and the Merrimac and was the nucleus of the colony of New Hampshire. During most of the seventeenth century New Hampshire was governed by Massachusetts. The region between the Piscataqua and the Kennebec rivers had been granted to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, an Anglican member of the Council for New England. His settlements were also added to the territory controlled by Massachusetts. The title to Gorges' colony of Maine was purchased by the larger colony, and

Massachusetts governed this region as a province until after the Revolution (1820).

The breach between king and parliament; the need for Reasons for united action against the attacks of the Dutch, their nearest neighbors on the south; the fear of a French and Indian raid of the New England Conthrough the Connecticut valley, were the reasons for the federation formation of a union between the four leading colonies (1643). This league, styled the United Colonies of New England, was entered into by Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven. Rhode Island was excluded because of its heretical religious views, while Maine and New Hampshire were looked upon as dependencies of Massachusetts Bay.

The twelve articles of its constitution provided for a con- Constitution gress of eight commissioners, two from each colony, who were to choose a presiding officer. The commissioners had the power to make war and peace, to arrange treaties with other colonies, to organize and annex additional territory to the confederation, and to determine the amount necessary to be raised for war purposes. The expenses of war were to be assessed according to population. This put the heaviest burden on Massachusetts, as over one half of the population of New England were residents of that colony, without giving her a correspondingly important voice in the deliberations of the congress. The commissioners were to meet as often as necessary, at least annually. Like the congress of the confederation of American colonies after the Revolution, this commission failed to govern the country properly because it Defects had no power to enforce its laws. It was chosen by the four general courts, to which it could suggest laws, but had no way of compelling their passage. This weakness was shown during the period of the English Commonwealth when three colonies voted for war with the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam, but Massachusetts nullified the action of the majority of the colonies by refusing to sanction war. The principal Service service of the New England Confederation was in accustoming the colonies to act together even in small matters.

The downfall of the Commonwealth and the return of the Stuarts brought the sturdy and independent colonies of

the Formation of the New

Three Reasons for sending a Commission to investigate Colonial Affairs

the New England Confederation again prominently before the eyes of Englishmen. Among the various religious sects that had arisen during the Stuart reigns was that of the Society of Friends, commonly called Quakers. Their founder. George Fox, taught that all formality, whether in government or Church, was contrary to the literal teachings of the Bible. In consequence the Quakers became extremely democratic in their views and practices. They refused to take an oath on the ground that it was contrary to the teaching, "Swear not at all," and would not accord the usual deference to the officers of the law. The Puritans were incensed at the Quakers for these reasons and the Commissioners of the New England Confederation advised the colonies to banish them on pain of death if they returned. Several Quakers suffered martyrdom in Boston because they denied the right of Massachusetts Bay Colony to pass such a law, and were badly treated in other colonies, except in Maryland and Rhode Island, where religious toleration prevailed.

The Ouakers were not without some political influence in England, and their appeal to Charles II from the court of Massachusetts interested the king against the confederation. He also was disturbed because the regicides were reported to be hiding in New England. Charges of unjust treatment had been filed by New Hampshire and Maine. For all these reasons Charles sent out a commission to investigate affairs in New England. This commission was unable to pin the Massachusetts General Court down to a direct statement of its loyalty to the king, so, after assisting in the capture of New Amsterdam, its members returned much chagrined to Because Connecticut had treated the commis-England. sioners well, Charles gave that colony a favorable charter and the control of New Haven, which had scorned his envoys. He granted a liberal charter also to Rhode Island, perhaps because she had suffered at the hands of Massachusetts Bay. Finally, the latter colony lost her charter and was proclaimed a royal province.

The following year (1685) James II succeeded to the

throne and sent over Sir Edmund Andros as governor of Beginnings of the Dominion of New England, which was made up of all the New England colonies under the leadership of Massachusetts Bay. Andros was an uncompromising Royalist, honest and fearless, but exceedingly tactless and arbitrary in his relations with the New Englanders, and soon aroused a spirit of opposition. In order to bring all the English colonies together under one colonial administration, he proceeded against the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island and joined both colonies to the Dominion. In 1688 the colonies of New York and New Jersey were also added, and were ruled by Andros' deputy, who was stationed at New York. Andros ruled without calling together the legislatures, appointed all officers to suit his convenience, raised and collected taxes without consulting the people — in short, carrying out the policy of Charles I as king. When the news of the "Glorious Revolution" reached America early in 1680, the colonists arrested Andros, and acting under their former charters, proclaimed William and Mary their sovereigns, thus accomplishing a bloodless revolution. New England was greatly aided by the course of events

in the mother country. Founded at the very beginning of a struggle between king and parliament, this contest at home prevented the king from controlling the obedience of his colonists. The revolution from 1641 to 1660 threw the colonists upon their own resources and enabled them to build up a strong system of self-government and to attain some measure of union in the New England Confederation. The Revolution of 1688-9 resulted in the grant of new charters to Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, in which the liberties of the people were safeguarded by provision for popular assemblies. The governors were usually appointed by the crown, and fortunately for the colonies were usually men of inferior ability. They quarrelled with their assemblies over the salary question, but always had to compromise with the people. The power and influence of the crown was

consequently weakened and the colonists learned by practice how to resist acts of arbitrary executive interference, so that

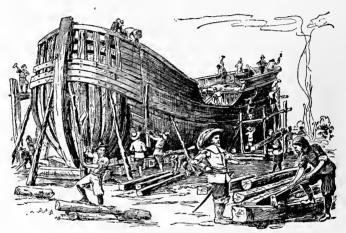
a Real Colonial Policy

Effects of Events in England on the Course of American History

362 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

by 1760 the colonies were ready to unite in opposition to the home government.

Economic History of the Colonies During the period of the New England Confederation, which was ended by the Revolution of 1688, Massachusetts coined the famous pine-tree shilling, which was accepted even in England, although not at its full value. Massachusetts was also the first colony to use paper currency. The colonies exported mostly raw materials, in payment for which



COLONIAL SHIP BUILDING

Sea-going vessels began to be built in New England after 1630, and were soon sufficient for home needs. Planks of oak and tall, straight masts of fir could be had almost at the water's edge, while everywhere was pitch pine for the making of tar and turpentine. The colonists soon became excellent shipwrights.

Europe sent manufactured goods. Whatever silver money there was in the colonies was speedily paid out to European merchants. This scarcity of silver coins led to the issuance of bills of credit, backed by the colonial treasuries, and also to the establishment of banking institutions, which issued bank notes upon their own funds. The lack of confidence in the bank notes spread to the colonial credit bills; as a result people were unwilling to accept these paper notes save at a

large discount. The consequent depreciation of the currency medium was the cause of great commercial disturbances which ended in the passage by parliament of several stringent laws forbidding the colonies to circulate credit money.

In addition to the thrice profitable circle of rum, slaves, molasses, and rum of the Yankee skippers, another lucrative occupation of the sailors of New England was whaling. New Bedford, Nantucket, and Marblehead became famous

Occupations of New Eng-



WITCH HOUSE - SALEM. MASS.

for the hardy seamen they produced, who hunted the whale with enormous profit from the New England coasts until they had to pursue them to the arctic seas. The New England shipvards turned out many trading vessels to carry to England the Virginian tobacco, the rice of South Carolina. the rum of Rhode Island, the salt fish of Massachusetts, and the leather and wheat of the central colonies.

The New Englanders were mostly Congregationalists in Religious Bereligion. Each church was independent, elected its own officers, and determined its own policy and beliefs. They Reason for were principally Calvinists and intolerant of all other sects, of the Salem though after a time this intolerance wore away. The witch- Witchcraft craft delusion, whose crisis occurred at Salem in 1602, has

the Outbreak

364 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

seemed to many to have been an outgrowth of the gloomy religious view of the Puritans. That this is not entirely true is shown by the frequency with which other nations and periods of history have witnessed the belief in and persecution of witchcraft. The New England outbreak may be accounted for as the result of a state of mental depression caused by epidemics of small-pox which severely ravaged the colony, and by the fear of a general uprising of the Indians, urged on and directed by the Canadian French, with whom the colonies were then at war. Stories of the most impossible kind were set in circulation against men and women, whose only offence seems to have been a peculiarity of disposition or of age, and a special court was organized to pronounce sentence of death upon them, for their guilt was believed in from the first. For a time the colony was stricken with a species of insanity, and over a score of persons were executed or punished with the utmost severity before the colony came to its senses.

The "Great Awakening"

A great awakening of religious enthusiasm took place in New England in the first half of the eighteenth century. At this time the Wesleyan revival in England was creating a new interest in religion. The same spirit was introduced into America by Whitefield, an associate of the Wesleys, who made twenty-five thousand converts in his short missionary labors in America. The literature of colonial New England is filled with the deep religious feeling of the Puritans, and it is characteristic of their familiarity with the Bible that the pages of their annals are filled with the phrases of the Old Testament

Characteristics of the Government of Holland 122. New York under the Dutch and English.—The colony established in the new world by the Dutch was more for commercial than political purposes, and what political institutions were set up there were closely modelled after those of Holland. This state, the most important of the Dutch Confederacy, consisted of a number of commercial cities, each with its charter from the Count of Holland giving it extensive rights. The Count's authority in the city was exercised by an appointed officer, the *schout*, whose duties

were to call the attention of the city council to offences committed in the city and to execute its laws. In the country districts the lord or his vassals ruled in the same manner as they had done through the middle ages. by the feudal system. The Dutch were Protestants. members of the Calvinistic Dutch Reformed Church. which closely resembles the Presbyterian, both in doctrine and government. The war for independence from Spain stimulated Dutch commerce, for the Dutch carried on a profitable illegitimate trade with Spanish colonial ports, and even seized a part of the Portuguese island empire, which Portugal, weakened by her annexation to Spain, could no longer hold. As Holland grew in wealth the social standards of the country rose rapidly. Universities were established in nearly every city, which became centres of learning for all Europe. These conditions prevailed in the country, which. until 1664, kept separated the groups of English American colonies

In 1600 Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the employ of Settlement of the Dutch East India Company, while searching for a sea route through America to the East Indies, sailed into New York harbor and up the river now bearing his name, as far as the site of Albany. Dutch traders soon came annually to trade with the Indians, and within five years commercial posts were established on Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange (now Albany, N. Y.). In 1626 the Dutch West India Company purchased land on Manhattan Island from the Indians and began the erection of a town, which they called New Amsterdam. Their relations with the Indians were for the most part of a friendly nature, and for this reason the Dutch prospered in the fur-trade.

The political institutions of Holland were transplanted to Government meet the needs of the colonists. The towns had their schout, of the New appointed by the West India Company, and a council of schepens chosen from among the substantial citizens. This measure of self-government was the result of considerable political agitation upon the part of the colonists, since the company wished to rule absolutely by means of a governor

New York

Netherland

sent from Holland. The country districts were granted to wealthy members of the company in huge feudal estates, over which the landholders or "patroons" ruled with all the power of feudal nobles. The last two governors used very arbitrary measures, refusing, until the people were thoroughly aroused, to call any sort of a representative body, and banishing all those who dared to criticise them. The policy of these governors in the matter of Indian wars and in their relations with the English on the Connecticut involved them in continual quarrels with their people and forced the reali-

English Conquest



SITE OF NEW YORK CITY IN 1609. HENRY HUDSON'S SHIP IN NEW YORK HARBOR

zation home to England that she must no longer tolerate this hostile territory which split apart her colonial groups in America and opened up to hostile nations a tempting approach to the interior of the new world. Meanwhile English settlers were coming closer to the Dutch settlements on Long Island and in western Connecticut. Finally an English fleet appeared in the harbor of New Amsterdam in 1664, and Stuyvesant, the violent and arbitrary Dutch governor, was forced to surrender the colony to the English. In fact the people were more than ready to welcome the coming of the freer English institutions.

Reasons for the Conquest

New Amsterdam possessed the best harbor on the coast and the Hudson formed an excellent means of communication with the fur-trading Indians. Furthermore the Dutch colony was the only gap in the English control of the Atlantic seaboard. For these reasons the conquest of the New Netherlands was of immense importance to the development of colonial England. The new governor, Nicholls, after consulting with an assembly of the settlers, issued a code of laws called the Duke's Laws, in honor of the new proprietor, the Duke of York. These laws provided for local government Changes on the English model. A town meeting was to be held annually at which a constable and eight overseers should be elected. Several towns were grouped together to form a judicial district, over which a sheriff was to preside, and since these districts later developed into counties. New York has both systems of local government — the township system of Massachusetts and the county system of Virginia.1

made by the Conquest

Although by the Duke's Laws the settlers were given the Charter of right of holding local offices, the administration of the central Liberties government of the colony was restricted to the governor and his council, there being no provision for a representative assembly. After years of popular discontent the governor called together an assembly of eighteen delegates, chosen by the people, and this body adopted a Charter of Liberties, which provided that the assembly must levy all taxes and share in the making of laws.

The accession of James II brought hardship to New York Leisler's as well as to New England. James II annulled the Charter Rebellion of Liberties, refused to permit the assembly to meet, and finally joined New York to New England under the rule of Andros. At the news of the outbreak of the revolution against James, Jacob Leisler, an energetic merchant of New York, assumed the governorship, drove out Andros' deputy, and proclaimed William of Orange king. Leisler was too fanatical for the easy-going New Yorkers, who succeeded in discrediting him with William III, who appointed another

¹ This double, or mixed, system of local government spread first to the other middle colonies, and in its essentials is now in use in all the states of the Union. In the beginning it was a cause of much confusion in local government.

governor to supersede the deposed Andros. Leisler was declared a traitor and executed, yet his name should be remembered because, while in power, he called together the first general congress of the American colonies for the purpose of organizing some defence against the raids by the Indians and French.

The Early French and Indian Wars

While the accession of William to the English throne had restored representative government in the colonies, it also involved the mother country in a war between Louis XIV and the Netherlands; and with the mother countries at war it is not surprising that the English engaged in an intercolonial war with the French and their Indian allies, which lasted for three quarters of a century. In Europe, tangling diplomacy and changing alliances produced four distinct wars between England and France during this period. In the intervals between these wars the mother countries were nominally at peace; but in America the colonists knew no peace, for the Indian allies of both nations spread fear in the border settlements. The first phase of the war was indecisive and was marked by Indian raids. Although a peace was made at Ryswick, the colonists remained hostile to each other. and were soon fighting again in Queen Anne's War. New England troops captured Acadia, and this gain was conceded in the Treaty of Utrecht. During the interval between this war and the one succeeding a number of attacks were made by the Indians on exposed settlements. During King George's War the colonists captured the strong fortress of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island; but as England had lost many valuable posts in India to the French during the same war, she was glad to assent to the terms of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which restored to either side the conquests of the war. To the Americans the relinquishment of Louisburg after the New Englanders had put forth such an effort in its capture seemed a betrayal of their interests, a further proof of England's selfish policy toward her colonies; but a broader view of the question shows that England was entirely justified in making this surrender. Soon after this war France began the erection of a chain of

1689-1763
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Louis 1689–97 Burning of Schenectady Falati- Sed by 1701–13 Seizure of Acadia by England, also Ulliance Holding the Commany 1744–48 Seizure of Louisburg by New Aix-la-Chapelle All confident companions by Frederick the Great of Prussia with French Corpusition of Prussia with Renewal and Holding through the Great of Prussia with Renewal and Holding through the Great and ham cerrite to yield the Great and ham certified the Great and ham certified to the Great and ham certified the Great and ha	WING	THE FRINCIPAL MATTERS	TO BE	A CHART SHOWING THE FRINCIPAL MATTERS TO BE NEMEMBERED ABOUT THE INTERCOLOMAL WARS, 10097-1/05	EKCOLONIAL W	Aks, 1009-1703
Palatinate, caused by Louis AIV's designs upon the Palatin and the Netherlands Spanish Succession caused by tror-13 Seizare of Acadia by England, also of Gibraltar throne Austrian Succession Ly44-48 Seizare of Louisburg by New England transmin throne Seven Years, Seven Years, Seven Years, Seven Hypered Gramming of Schenectady T744-48 Seizare of Acadia by England, also Utrecht of Gibraltar Campaigns by Frederick with Austra against Prussia and France Colonists and unsertled political problems in Europe caused this of Plassey gives India to England War Hoofilities between the political poolisism to December 10 Paris Problems in Europe caused this of Plassey gives India to England Alwar Hoofilities between the political poolisism to December 10 Paris Problems in Europe caused this of Plassey gives India to England		EUROPEAN WAR	DATES	Events	TREATY	Terms
Spranish Succession caused by the attempt to put a grandeon of Louis XIV on the Spanish throne Austrian Succession Aix-la-Chapelle Aix-la-Chapelle	lian	Palatinate, caused by Louis XIV's designs upon the Palati- nate and the Netherlands	1689-97		Ryswick	No territorial gains
Austrian Succession England drawn into an alliance with Austria against Prussia and France Seven Years' War Hostilities between the colonists and unsertled political problems in Europe caused this of Plassey gives India to England	lian	Spanish Succession caused by the attempt to put a grandson of Louis XIV on the Spanish throne	1701–13	Seizare of Acadia by England, also of Gibraltar	Utrecht	England gaine d Acadia (Nova Scotia), New- foundland, and Hudson Bay terri- tory
Seven Years' War Hostilities between the colonists and unsettled political problems in Europe caused this war.	dian	Austrian Succession England drawn into an alliance with Austria against Prussia and France	1744-48		Aix-la-Chapelle	All conquered territory restored
	dian	Seven Years' War Hostlithes between the colonists and unsettled political problems in Europe caused this war	1756-63			All French terri- tory east of the Mississppi ceded Lo England and Lo ut sinna to Spain. England in exceed in exchange for the accorded frontial in the ware during the ware

forts along her frontier,—namely, the Great Lakes and the Ohio country,—and there came into conflict with the advance of the English colonizing movement.

Comparison of the Antagonists 124. The End of New France. — For over fifty years farsighted Englishmen had from time to time urged upon the home government the necessity for preparation against the final struggle with the French for the mastery of the North



America at the Opening of the Seven Years' War

American continent. In numbers the English outclassed the Frenchmen nearly twenty to one, their government was freer, their habits of life and industries more settled and civilized, vet in certain respects the struggle between the two nations in America was an even While colonial governors sent from England had petitioned vainly for governmental action in defence, the French had proceeded systematically to establish trading posts and forts at strategic points along the Great Lakes, to build

war vessels for use on Lake Champlain, and to incite the Indians against the English colonists. The French explorer, Bienville, was sent to take possession of the Ohio valley for France, which he pretended to accomplish by burying in the banks of the river metal plates on which were engraved the words of a vainglorious proclamation annexing to New France all lands touched by the Ohio and its branches: The French, thus, were first in the field, and had the further advantage

of being able to make the English attack them; moreover, their military forces were under the central authority of the governor-general of Canada and were always effective. whereas the disorganization of the English forces was at the outset complete, first, because of the undependable character of the colonial levies and, second, the inadequacy of the generals whom England sent to command them. The first defect was caused by a deplorable selfishness on the part of several colonies, such as New Jersey, which refused to bear any part of the burden of the French wars because their own borders were not threatened with invasion. It was also due to the lack of an effective union between the colonies, which promoted jealousies between them.

The need of a closer union between the colonies had been Franklin's recognized by Leisler, William Penn, and others, in the seventeenth century, but as the eighteenth century progressed it seemed a hopeless task to overcome the prejudices and rivalries of the various colonies. To the merchant of Boston the Virginia planter was still almost a foreigner. Commercial and boundary disputes were both common and bitter, so much so that one writer of that time thought that civil war would follow if Great Britain were to relinquish her control. In 1754, just as the war-clouds were gathering, a meeting of several colonial governors and men of affairs was held at Albany to conclude stronger treaties of alliance with the Iroquois and to consider what might be done toward the unification of the colonies. At this meeting a plan, largely the work of Benjamin Franklin, was offered which provided for the establishment of a central government consisting of a grand council and a governor-general. The grand council was to be composed of a number of representatives selected by each colonial legislature, the number from each to be in proportion to the taxes paid by the colony, and was to have the powers of taxation, maintenance of the army, appointment of civil officers, and legislation — subject to the royal governor-general, who was to have general executive powers. This plan, if it had been adopted, would have set up a self-sustaining federal government, and not a mere

"Albany Plan of Colonial

league of colonies; but the opinions of the time were opposed to it. The colonial legislatures hardly gave it respectful consideration, and the royal governors rejected it contemptuously.

The Last French and Indian War The inadequacy of the English commanders was due to their inability to rate the colonial officers correctly and to their unwillingness to learn the methods of warfare necessary to overcome the tactics of the French and Indians. Washington



FRANKLIN AS A YOUNG MAN

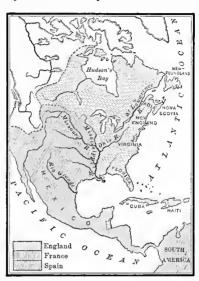
was sent by Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia to convey to the commanders of the French forts. Le Bœuf and Venango, in western Pennsylvania the claim of England to the territory they were occupying, and later to seize the strategic position at the juncture of the Allegheny and Monongahela but he was unable to hold Fort Necessity. which he had thrown up hastily to protect himself from French attack, and surrendered his garrison. This skirmish was the pre-

lude to a world-wide war between England and France and their respective allies, which was fought in the forests of the new world, over the historic battlefields of Germany, and under the burning sun of India. In America the French were dislodged from every fortress they had owned in America, among them Ticonderoga, Louisburg, and Quebec, and the Peace of Paris in 1763 recognized the cession by France to England of all her possessions east of the Mississippi and of the territory of Louisiana to Spain.

People of New York 125. The Middle Colonies in the Eighteenth Century. — At the end of these wars the population of New York was one hundred fifty thousand, of whom the larger part were

descendants of the Dutch and the rest descended from the English settlers, who were scattered over the western end of Long Island, on Manhattan Island, and in occasional villages and farms on both sides of the Hudson as far as Albany and for a short distance up the Mohawk. principal occupations were agriculture and the fur-trade, in which fortunes were easily made. Many an adventurous

young man worked his way into the Indian country by canoe, carrying along a barrel of rum with which to tempt the natives to bring in furs. Befuddled by the rum, the Indians were easily induced to exchange furs worth a small fortune for a few paltry trinkets. Returning to Albany, the trader made up a raft of timber and floated himself and his belongings down to New York, where the timber and furs brought ready money. Manufacturing was almost



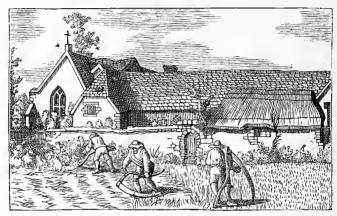
AMERICA AT THE CLOSE OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

lacking in the middle colonies after the English conquest of New York, but New York City became the central point for the exchange of the commodities of the other colonies.

The important position held by trade had an influence on Social Life in social conditions. It was not considered beneath a man of New York standing in the city to engage in trade. The aristocrats of New York, therefore, were not mere landed proprietors, although there were some of that class along the Hudson, but men who worked hard and constantly to build up their

374 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

fortunes. The people were fonder of gayety than the New Englanders and there were many social events in New York. Lining the wide and amply shaded streets, low houses of brick and stone stood gable end to the street with many-colored, tiled roofs, upon which was usually a railed platform whereon the householder and his family might sit in the evening. Within were wainscoted walls, hardwood or sanded floors, solid mahogany furniture, and a brave display of silver plate and pewter ware. The houses of the patroons



Mowing Grass in the Eighteenth Century

were larger and were surrounded with beautiful gardens, but house furnishings were much the same as in the homes of the wealthier city folk. The patroon system hindered the development of the colony, because settlers preferred to take up farms to which they could obtain a clear title, instead of living as feudal dependents. New Jersey was the gainer for this reason, and the farmers of New Jersey from small beginnings were soon recognized as men of importance in that colony.

The established church of New York after the English conquest was the Episcopalian, but there was a strong feeling

Religion

against having any connection between church and state. which manifested itself in popular agitation against paying the bishop's salary from the common funds. The Dutch Reformed Church was very strong and especially important in building up the rudiments of a public school system. Each town had its school, under the supervision of the pastor of the village church, supported by the contributions of the public. The English conquest had a deadening effect on public education, because the English government was unwilling to support educational institutions that were under the support or supervision of a dissenting church. When the English awoke to the need of public schools, early in the eighteenth century, the Dutch were unwilling to send their children to such schools for fear that they would become Englishmen in speech and ideals. By the middle of the century, however, this racial rivalry had been nearly eliminated and institutions for higher learning offered a liberal education, among them King's College, which is now Columbia University.

The other middle colonies were largely the result of Quaker A Quaker Exenterprise. A Quaker settlement on the east bank of the periment in Delaware became the nucleus for the colony of West Jersey, while Pennsylvania was wholly the outcome of the work of William Penn, a distinguished Ouaker. Penn was the son of a prominent English admiral. He adopted the extreme dissenting views of the Friends, thus showing his indifference to the chance of political success, which at that time was possessed exclusively by followers of the Anglican Church. He inherited a claim for sixteen thousand pounds against the English government, and after eleven years' waiting induced Charles II to make him a grant of forty thousand square miles west of the Delaware, including the lands on the west shore of Delaware Bay, which had been settled by the Swedes, conquered by the Dutch, and added to the possessions of England after the conquest of the New Netherlands. In 1682 the city of Philadelphia (Brotherly Love) was founded, and Penn came over to establish the colony upon a firm foundation. Penn gave to the colony a constitu-

Government

Pennsylvania Charter of Privileges tion, known as the Charter of Privileges, which provided for an assembly to be chosen annually by the taxpayers, which was to levy taxes and share in the making of laws, for a governor and council to be appointed by the proprietor, for religious toleration, and the civil rights of Englishmen.

Policy and Influence of Penn During the eighty years of the separate development of this Quaker colony, the influence of Penn was of utmost importance, long after his death, in spreading humane



WILLIAM PENN

and enlightened ideas. Instead of the long list of capital offences usual at that time there were only two in Pennsylvania. The religious toleration, which soon became real religious freedom, encouraged settlers, and the rich farming lands of the valleys of eastern Pennsylvania proved more inviting than the rocky fields of austere New England. The friendship between Penn and the king prevented an attack upon the charter of Pennsylvania at the time when all the other colonies were be-

ing disciplined, while friendly treatment of the Indians and the supremacy of the English-loving Iroquois among the red men of that region prevented the Indian wars from which other colonies suffered. It was fortunate that the colony was at peace, as the Quakers disapproved of war, even refusing to defend themselves in time of war. Although many English settlers of other faiths were attracted to Penn's colony, the Quakers remained the ruling element until Revolutionary times, because of their wealth and prominence.

In the houses of these Quakers were many negro house

servants, but the Friends disapproved of slavery as an in- Social Condistitution, and their treatment of their slaves was exceedingly tions in Pennkind, even to the extent of granting them their freedom. The social life of Pennsylvania was centred in Philadelphia. which, by the middle of the eighteenth century, had become the rival of Boston as the most prominent city of the colonies. Much of the orderliness of the city was due to the work of Benjamin Franklin, who made the city his home in 1726.

sylvania



PENN MAKING HIS FAMOUS TREATY WITH THE INDIANS "THIS TREATY SHALL NEVER BE BROKEN"

The streets were wide, clean, paved, and lighted. The houses were substantially built in the English style. The commerce of the colony centred on the quays along the river front. The broad-minded Friends were in advance of their times in the treatment of the insane and sick, as they established hospitals for both classes of unfortunates. Penn granted a charter to a public school in 1711, which still flourishes in Philadelphia under the name of the Penn Charter School. Franklin made plans for the establishment of a

college which grew into the University of Pennsylvania, and because of the activity of Franklin, Philadelphia also became the rival of Boston in literature.

The Colonies

126. Summary; the Colonies in 1760. — At the close of the French and Indian Wars, England possessed all of North America east of the Mississippi. The settlements commenced with the southeastern coast of Maine, extended for a considerable distance up the Merrimac River, thinly



PENN'S MANSION - PHILADELPHIA

covered the states of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, followed the shores of the Hudson and lower Mohawk, occupied East and West Jersey, which had been joined in the eighteenth century, filled the valleys of eastern Pennsylvania and the shores of the Delaware and Chesapeake bays, and were spread thinly over the lowlands of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia. Between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi were a few widely separated trading posts and forts.

· The principal occupations were lumbering, agriculture, and commerce in the New England colonies; trading and agricul-

ture in the middle colonies; and rice and tobacco culture in Occupations the southern. The principal towns were Boston, Philadelphia. New York, and Charleston — in each of which the colonial life of that section of the colonies centred. There were in general five social classes: first, an aristocracy of wealth, family, or ability; second, a middle class of merchants, traders, and small farmers; third, free white laborers; fourth, indentured white servants; and fifth, negro slaves but there was no fixed line between most of these classes. Men who had begun their colonial careers as indentured servants, after serving out their term and beginning again in another colony, became the leaders and members of the first of these social classes in their new home. A beginning of public education had been made, and Harvard, Yale, King's. the University of Pennsylvania, and Princeton furnished opportunities for higher learning.

and Social Conditions

There were three forms of local government: the town Political Insystem of New England, the county in the South, and a stitutions composite form in the middle colonies. Originally there had been three forms of central government: the royal colony, in which the governor was appointed by the crown; the proprietary, in which he was the appointee of the proprietor; and the charter, in which he was elected by the colonists.1 In each kind of colony there was a popular assembly elected by the people which had some control over taxation and legislation. The principle of religious toleration was established in all the colonies, while complete religious freedom was enjoyed in a few. There was much greater political liberty in America during the eighteenth century than in England, and the morals of the people were higher, even if their manners were less polished. The French and Indian Wars accustomed the colonists to look to each other for defence and advice and brought to England new problems of colonial administration, with whose working out the study of American history is peculiarly concerned.

¹Massachusetts Bay Colony was an exception to this classification. By the charter of 1600, her governor was appointed by the Crown.

OUESTIONS AND TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

On a map of North America show in different colors, or by different markings, the Spanish, French, Dutch, Swedish, and English spheres of influence in America. On a map of North America show as above the various additions to English territory in America in 1713 and 1763: also the principal English settlements, towns, and means of communication. Indicate the strategic points in the colonies. On a map showing the various English colonies indicate appropriately the original form of government provided for each, and all changes therein, together with Show the boundary lines established by the charters. Discuss the political and economic effects of the cultivation of tobacco. Describe Virginian life in the eighteenth century. Discuss the witchcraft delusion in New England and elsewhere. Describe old Dutch customs in the New Netherlands. What were the political and social features of the Iroquois confederacy? Describe Indian customs and characteristics. Make a comparison of the Ouaker and Puritan in the following respects: religion, government, treatment of the Indians. What elements have minor European peoples contributed to our civilization?

The following topics are to be found in Thwaites, *The Colonies:* Longmans: Early explorations and settlements before Jamestown, 21-55; Virginia, 65-77; Maryland, 81-84; Carolinas, 89-95; Georgia, 187-205; Plymouth, 113-124; Massachusetts Bay, 124-140; The New England Confederation, 140-150 (also Connecticut, New Haven, and Rhode Island); Provincial New England, Chapter VIII; Middle colonies,

195-232.

The following topics are to be found in Hart, Contemporaries, Vol. II. Source readings, viz.: New England, 35–63; Middle colonies, 65–87; Southern colonies, 90–124; Colonial government— Principles of English control, 127–150; The colonial governor, 153–169; Colonial seemblies, 171–184; Colonial courts, 188–220; Life of the people, 224–240; Commerce and currency, 244–254; Intellectual life, 255–272; Religious life, 276–289; Slavery and servitude, 291–310; The French colonies, 312–324; The Indians, 327–334; Intercolonial wars, 337–349; The French

and Indian War, 352-360.

The following topics are to be found in Hart, Contemporaries, Vol. I: Macmillan. Source readings, viz.: Reasons for colonization, 145–167; Regulation of colonization, 171–184; Southern colonies — Virginia, 200–242; Maryland, 247–272; The Carolinas, 275–283; Southern colonial life, 285–310; New England — Conditions, 313–335; Plymouth, 340–363; Early Massachusetts, 366—393; Rhode Island, 397–407; Connecticut and New Haven, 410–423; New Hampshire and Maine, 426–435; New England's development, 439–463; New England life, 467–512; Middle colonies — Conditions, 517–525; New York, 529–544; Pennsylvania and Delaware, 548–559; New Jersey, 563–573; Life in the middle colonies, 576–586.

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Dewey, Financial History of the United States, pp. 2-32: Longmans.

Maps and Plans

Shepherd, Historical Atlas. The Spread of Colonization, 1600-1700, p. 128; Principal Seats of War in Europe, 1700-1721, p. 129; Europe about 1740, p. 131; Principal Seats of War in Europe, 1740-63, p. 132; Treaty Adjustments, 1713-63, p. 133; The Struggle for Colonial Dominion, 1700-63, p. 136; Colonies, Dependencies, and Trade Routes, pp. 179-180; Localities in Western Europe Connected with American History, p. 184; Localities in England Connected with American History, p. 185; The Indians in the United States, p. 188; Reference Map of the New England Colonies, p. 189; European Exploration and Settlement in the United States, 1513-1776, p. 191; Reference Map of the Middle Colonies, p. 192; Reference Map of the Southern Colonies, p. 193.

CHAPTER XVI

THE ASCENDANCY OF FRANCE AND THE AGE OF

Meeting of the Estates General 127. Richelieu and the Establishment of the Absolute Monarchy. — The death of Henry IV put an end to the great plans for the development of France which had been begun by himself and his great minister Sully, whose enemies speedily brought about his retirement from public affairs. The queen-mother, Mary de Medici, was chosen as regent for her little son, Louis XIII, and in 1614 a meeting of the representatives of the three estates, or social classes, of France was called to consider social and political reforms. This body, which corresponded to the English parliament, but without the political power of that body, was unable to agree on any definite programme and was therefore dismissed early in the following year. This was the last attempt in France to permit the people to share in their government until the time of the French Revolution.

Rise of Richelieu to Power His Character and Aims Many of the great nobles of France were impatient under the rule of a woman, and several favorites gained the ear of the young king. For a time Mary was able to hold her own against her powerful enemies with the assistance of Jean de Richelieu, a French nobleman who had taken Holy Orders and who later became a cardinal of the church. He was a statesman of great ability in reading character, in conducting delicate negotiations for the government, and in planning successful governmental policies. He was unscrupulous in obtaining his ends and extremely ambitious for personal advancement, as is shown by his desertion of the cause of the queen when he became convinced that it was losing ground. His aims as minister were three-fold: to destroy the political power of the Huguenot party, to humble the haughty nobles

and compel them to recognize the superior power of the king, and finally, to raise France to the first position in European politics. Although a prince of the church, he at all times subordinated the interests of the church to the interests of his country. Although he planned to crush the political influence of the Huguenots, he recognized that the overthrow of protestantism was impossible and that diplomacy must for the future count upon relations with permanent protestant nations. His attitude toward the king was both loyal and

paternal; and in spite of numerous plots against his life, directed against him by the faction of the disappointed queen regent, he held his grip on the helm of state for eighteen epoch-making years of European history.

The Edict of Nantes, in providing that the Huguenots might have fortified towns, created a privileged class in the state and hence was a source of danger to the monarchy. Richelieu, recognizing this fact, laid siege to La Rochelle and other Huguenot strongholds



Richelieu and the Hugue-

RICHELIEII

and captured them, notwithstanding the aid given the Huguenots by Buckingham, the worthless minister of Charles I of England. Having broken the political strength of this faction, he magnanimously permitted them to retain their religion and their property, and therefore did not lose the loyalty of this influential class of citizens.

In pursuance of his policy to make the power of the king Richelieu and supreme over the great lords of France, he compelled them the Nobles to obey the king's laws on pain of trial and confiscation of their lands. He detected several conspiracies to overthrow himself and the growing autocracy of the king, and

put down a number of serious revolts. After many of the leading nobles had been executed or banished, the remainder were willing to acknowledge the supremacy of the king, or at least feared to bring upon their heads the wrath of the great minister, and pretended acquiescence in his governmental plans. His methods were extremely arbitrary and he employed agents, called intendants, who were sent everywhere in France to represent the king's authority and with powers superior to those of all local government officials. As a later king says, the duty of the intendants was to see to "the observation of our edicts, the administration of civil and criminal justice and of police, and all other matters which concern the prosperity and security of our subjects." They were men of middle and even low rank, and so were uncompromising in their attitude toward disloyalty or dishonesty upon the part of the nobles.

Richelieu and the Thirty Years' War The participation of France in the Thirty Years' War has been partially treated before (p. 328). In the accomplishment of Richelieu's plans for France it was necessary to humble the Hapsburg rulers, who for a century had enjoyed the dominating position in European politics. With the Hapsburg king of Spain he disputed the ownership of territories in Italy, and in 1635 he entered the Thirty Years' War in behalf of the Protestants, hoping to secure valuable additions to the territories of France at the expense of the Catholic Hapsburg emperor of Germany. While this war was still in progress Richelieu died (1642), leaving the French monarchy much strengthened by his measures and possessing several territorial gains.

Cardinal Mazarin A year after the death of Richelieu his royal master died, leaving an infant son, Louis XIV, whose mother, Anne of Austria, was named as regent. A situation resembling that at the opening of Louis XIII's reign resulted in the choice of Cardinal Mazarin, a wily Italian churchman, for Richelieu's position. He carried through the negotiations for France in the Peace of Westphalia and saw Richelieu's plans for the annexation of territory succeed. Mazarin was unpopular with the French nobility, who regarded him as a pretentious

foreign upstart; accordingly a league of the great nobles with the lawvers of Paris was formed to crush him. This movement, known as the Fronde, because of the irresolution of its leaders, may be regarded as the last attempt of the feudal lords of France to regain their medieval position of nower. After five years of intrigue and foreign war Mazarin. as Richelieu before him, was recognized as the chief power in the state next to the king. He was the direct heir of Richelieu's system, he reaped where Richelieu had sown. and yet his policy was far more cunning than that of his predecessor. Instead of crushing opposition at the instant of its appearance, he deceived his opponents and forced them to waste their time in action; meanwhile he took steps to circumvent them, and in the end all opposition ceased from sheer lack of grievances. Yet with all his ability, he left little permanent impression on the development of France.

Thwarted in their plans, the nobles became mere courtiers, The Absolute who struggled among themselves for a position of prominence Monarchy of at the king's right hand, maintaining themselves there by the use of adroit flattery of his person and mental qualities. From this time until the French Revolution in 1780, France was an absolute monarchy. The sole legislative, executive, and judicial authority rested upon the will of the king as expressed in the acts of ministers and intendants chosen by him to carry on the affairs of the kingdom. A characteristic feature of the government was the councils, composed almost entirely of middle-class lawyers. These discussed the great questions of state policy, regulated the finances, heard cases appealed from the district courts, decided matters of religion, — in short, governed France, but entirely according to the will of the ruler. These bodies were not accorded any definite position in the government, and their meetings were merely occasions on which the king was pleased to consult with his legal advisers. Assemblies of the estates in the provinces were occasionally held, and the district parlements (see p. 207, note) still gave their decisions, but the real powers of government in the provinces rested with the intendants. (See D. 384.)

Louis XIV

Louis the Man 128. Louis XIV and his Court. — Louis XIV, the personification of absolute government in France, has often been described, but perhaps nowhere more accurately than in the following testimony of Saint-Simon, his courtier and contemporary: "He had the figure of a hero, with a majesty that appeared in every movement, without arrogance, whether robed in his dressing gown, in robes of state, or on horseback at the head of his troops. He excelled in every



Louis XIV

sort of exercise, and spent a considerable part of his time out of doors. He was patient to the last degree in business and in matters of personal service, and never gave way to impatience or anger." Side by side with this flattering portrait we should place the same writer's confession that the vanity of Louis was without limit, which accounts for his unwillingness to take advice and his desire for flattery. He had

been educated to believe that his office was the gift of God, and his teacher quoted even the Bible to him to prove his divine calling.

Louis the King A great English historian has characterized him as "by far the ablest man who was born in modern times on the steps of a throne." He regarded his office so seriously that he once wrote: "One must work hard to reign, and it is ingratitude and presumption towards God, injustice and tyranny towards man, to wish to reign without hard work." Accordingly he regulated his day, spending several hours daily in consultation with his ministers. Louis XIV held the same ideas about the divine source of his power which had cost Charles I of England his life. The saying, perhaps wrongly attributed to him, "I am the state," is quite de-

scriptive of his contempt for any authority other than his own. He considered it an act of condescension upon his part if he took any of his subjects into his plans for government, and all he required of them was unquestioning obedience and flattering attention.

Having unpleasant memories of the Fronde and the Versailles disturbances in the streets of Paris, he established his court a few miles out of the city at Versailles, where he built an enormous château, or palace, with gorgeously decorated rooms extending over acres of ground. The naturally barren



PALACE OF VERSAILLES

The palace is chiefly the work of the royal architect Mansart and was erected between 1676 and 1688. The court occupied it in 1682. When completed it could house 10,000 persons. The façade toward the gardens is 1890 feet long. This view is from the Place d'Armes, at the end of the Avenue de Paris.

soil was enriched, an aqueduct brought in a plentiful supply of water, which was conducted into lakes and canals, while skilful landscape gardeners transformed the wilderness into a succession of bewilderingly beautiful terraced gardens and cool forest glades in which were artificial grottos and small lodges. Here he maintained an army of courtiers and servants in a life of idle luxury and extravagant display. Great nobles of the realm intrigued for the privilege of perLife at his Court

forming personal and menial services for the king, and even his morning toilet became a ceremonial of almost disgusting flattery and worship. The highest dignitaries of the state held his boots for him, and when he dined, even his own brother was not admitted to a seat at his table, but had to content himself with a low stool placed back of the royal chair. Fancy spectacles were devised to amuse the jaded senses of the court and the resources wrung from the peasant



HALL OF MIRRORS, VERSAILLES

in the sweat of his brow were poured forth like water to gratify the whim of the favorite of the hour.

His Patronage of Art and Literature The erection of Versailles furnished occupation for many painters and architects. The fatherly attitude of Louis XIV toward his favorites was in keeping with his patronage of art and literature. The naturalistic painting of the renaissance had practically ceased; in France, only, artists like Lebrun achieved considerable success in interior decoration. The art of landscape gardening reached its height under Louis XIV. It was the fashion for those building palaces to create wonderful gardens which completed the general artistic effect of the palace. "All the alleys and paths had

geometrical forms, and the ground was levelled and held by terraces. The trees were trimmed into the form of a square, a ball, or even of some animal. Water, brought from afar, was used to create fountains in basins of marble, decorated with statues of the nymphs of streams. All was artificial; a salon in the open air. It was the desire to give to those who



ST.-GERMAIN - NEAR PARIS

One of the castles of the French Kings. Here Louis XIV received the banished James II of England.

walked there the impression of an art dominating nature." (Abridged from Seignobos, "Medieval and Modern Civilization.") Under the encouragement of rich rewards from the king, the French poets produced beautiful, though showy, plays and epics. It was the golden age of French literature, in which the authors produced their works for the satisfaction of the salons, as the gatherings of cultured persons for the discussion of literature and philosophy were called. Extreme care was taken to improve the literary style, and the French

language became at this time the speech of polite society throughout western Europe. Witty memoirs of the period were written, among them those of Saint-Simon, from which we have quoted. Great poets and dramatists, such as Corneille and Racine, brought French letters to the height reached by the Elizabethan writers in England. Yet over them all the king's police exercised a strict censorship, and liberty of the press was unknown. The French Academy, which had been founded by Richelieu to encourage the study of French literature, was supplemented by the work of the Academy of Science, which carried on studies similar to those of the Royal Society in England.

The "Ancien Régime"

129. Colbert and the French People. — To support these extravagances, an ingenious system of taxation prevailed similar to that of the Roman provincial system. The intendants fixed the amounts to be paid by the various towns and country districts, or parishes, within their jurisdiction. and then farmed out the collection of taxes to those who hid highest for the privilege. These tax collectors harassed the poor especially, because they were unable to resist. The latter had to pay ground taxes, inheritance taxes, labor taxes, salt taxes, and military service. When told that the peasants had nothing to eat, one haughty courtier exclaimed: "Let them eat hay!" The disregard for the rights of the lower class was increased by the general corruptness of the officials, who held government offices principally for purposes of "graft." Trade in France was hampered by the abundance of internal customs or tariffs. Nations have frequently adopted the policy of collecting an import tax on goods coming into the country; but in France there were many customs stations, so that goods going up the Seine to Paris had to pay dozens of tolls. The blighting effects on commerce of such an arrangement may be understood by imagining commercial conditions in this country if a Chicago merchant, importing a Swiss watch, had to pay a duty on that watch on its arrival in New York, and additional taxes thereafter whenever it crossed a state line on the route of the express company carrying it to its destination. French manufacturing was in the grip of a broken-down gild system, which placed absurd and prohibitive restrictions upon different occupations. at the same time discouraging invention.

Colbert, a financial minister of Louis XIV, became the Colbert's principal adviser to the king after the death of Mazarin, who had trained him in statecraft. Besides being a great statesman. Colbert was a great economist, one who made a study of the wealth-getting and wealth-using activities of mankind. He was fully convinced that the French financial system was faulty, and endeavored to lighten the burdens of the people. He tried to encourage manufactures by regulating the gilds, prescribing rules for industry, and by putting a heavy tariff on foreign-made goods. This kind of a tariff is called "protective." in that it aims to enable domestic manufacturers to charge more for their wares, and thus pay greater wages to their workmen and greater profits to themselves. He encouraged commerce by building better roads and by opening canals to connect commercial rivers. He also offered special inducements to colonists to build up New France in America. He discovered that many officials were using their positions to increase their personal wealth by unfair methods, and he proceeded against them with a vigor which brought against him a storm of hatred. In the midst of his labors he died.

Louis had not been wholly in sympathy with all of Colbert's Short-sighted reforms. The former wished to spend his money lavishly Policy of upon his gorgeous court and his expensive wars, to secure larger revenues, and to increase the military renown of France; the latter approved neither of the king's extravagances nor of his vainglorious military outlays, but aimed to build up French prosperity on a material foundation by strengthening the manufacturing class. The short-sightedness of Louis is well illustrated in his action revoking the Edict of Nantes. As Louis became older he was greatly influenced by the Jesuits, who did not believe that Richelieu's policy toward the Huguenots had been sufficiently severe. Accordingly they induced the king to repeal the edict of toleration granted by Henry IV. The members of the manufacturing class in France were at this time almost to a

Reforms

Louis XIV

man members of the reformed faith, so that the restoration of the former penalties against Protestants in France and the rigid enforcement of laws against them drove thousands of the best workmen of Europe to seek refuge in the English American colonies and in the Protestant state of Brandenburg, whose ruler welcomed them and granted them many privileges. In consequence France lost all the headway she had gained under Colbert, and was even less able to bear the great losses caused by the series of aggressive wars with which Louis filled the greater part of his reign.

130. Louis XIV's Wars. — To further the policy

Louis and Charles II

War with

inaugurated by Richelieu and carried on by Mazarin, of extending the territories of France to the Rhine, Louis invaded the Spanish Netherlands, to which he made claim in the name of his wife, a Spanish princess. Momentarily stopped by a Triple Alliance of England, Sweden, and the United Provinces of the Netherlands, he negotiated secretly with Charles II, and by the Treaty of Dover purchased the honor of that ruler. (See p. 324.) Louis then planned (1670) to conquer the United Provinces as well as the Spanish Netherlands and to secure his own election as emperor of the German empire. Sweden was induced to give up her alliance with Holland in return for the promise of French aid against her troublesome neighbors, and Louis was thus entirely free to begin his war of conquest. The French overran a portion of the Netherlands and caused great alarm in that country; but the heroic Dutch opened their dikes and flooded their fields to prevent the French advance, saying that they would defend their homes "to the last ditch," and Admiral de Ruyter defeated a combined English and French fleet off the shores of England. Louis' great generals, Turenne and Condé, won several important battles along the Rhine, but by 1678 all parties were ready for peace, which was concluded at Nymwegen.

War of the League of Augsburg Upon the accession of William of Orange to the English throne in 1689, Louis seized the opportunity to throw his army into the Rhenish Palatinate on an errand of destruction. Heidelberg, Worms, and other German cities were sacked



TERMS OF THE PEACE OF UTRECHT



and a large part of the country was laid waste. The German states were united by these aggressions, and early in 1680 the emperor formed an alliance with Holland and England. called the Grand Alliance, or the League of the Augsburg. to oppose France. A poorly organized expedition to restore Tames II to the English throne was defeated by William, at the battle of the Boyne in Ireland and a combined Dutch and English fleet inflicted a crushing loss upon the French at La Hogue. In 1607 peace was declared at Ryswick; William was recognized by Louis as king of Great Britain and Ireland, and conquered territories were restored to the nations owning them before the war.

The final war of Louis XIV's reign is known as the War War of the of the Spanish Succession. The causes were complex, but the circumstances which gave the name were as follows: The decrepit Charles II of Spain willed his crown to the grandson Causes of Louis XIV. In so doing he passed over his Austrian relatives, the Hapsburgs. The exultant exclamation of the French ruler, "The Pyrenees are no more!" — meaning that Spain was to all intents and purposes to be a part of France found an answering response of dread or jealousy in the hearts of the other European rulers. Furthermore, Louis publicly recognized James Edward Stuart, the son of the deposed James II, as the rightful king in England. It therefore served William's purposes to form the Grand Alliance with Austria and other aggrieved states to compel Louis to refuse in behalf of his grandson the throne of Spain and to seat the Austrian claimant thereon. Just as the war began, William died and was succeeded by his sister-in-law, Anne. (See p. 326.)

Marlborough, the English general, won decisive victories Progress and in the Netherlands and along the Rhine at Blenheim, Mal-Close plaquet, Oudenarde, and Ramillies, in co-operation with Utrecht Prince Eugene of the imperial forces, in spite of the heroic endeavors of the French commanders. Finally, the Austrian claimant to the throne of Spain died and his claim was inherited by the emperor. To put him on the Spanish throne would be as threatening to the balance of power in Europe

Spanish Succession

as to allow Louis' grandson to sit thereon. Moreover, the English were dissatisfied with war and longed for a period of peace in which to build up their shattered commerce. Accordingly the English withdrew from the alliance against France and the war quickly came to an end. Peace was signed at Utrecht in 1713. Anne was recognized as the ruler of England and Scotland, which had recently formed a closer union.¹ England received Gibraltar and other fortresses in Europe, and the Hudson Bay territory, Acadia, and Newfoundland in America. The Spanish Netherlands were ceded to Austria, together with other former Spanish possessions in Italy. Within a year Louis XIV was dead, having completed the longest reign of history, one of seventy-two years.

Political and Economic Conditions in England 131. England and France at the Close of the Reign of Louis XIV. — The changes in sovereigns in England had a profound influence upon the growth of political parties. The Revolution of r688–9 had been effected by a union of patriotic men of both the Whig and Tory parties, but with the opening years of William III's reign party lines were again closely drawn. The gloomy personality of William and his inability to win the affection of his English subjects forced him to distrust the English and to choose Dutchmen for important official positions. His ministers he chose from the Whig party, because it seemed the most enthusiastic in support of his plans, and thus laid the foundation for the modern cabinet system, in which the ministers

¹ In 1707 commissioners appointed from both Scotland and England presented a plan for a more perfect union between the two nations, which had been in a personal union under one sovereign since the accession of Mary Stuart's son to the English throne. The separate parliament at Edinburgh was done away with, and forty-five representatives of the Scotch shires and towns were to be elected to the English House of Commons, while the Scotch lords elected sixteen of their own number to represent them in the House of Lords. About the same time Great Britain adopted the "Union Jack" as the official flag, forming it by superimposing the red cross of England upon the diagonal white cross of Scotland. Each country retained its own established church and legal, financial, and educational systems; but the union insured action upon all questions of foreign policy.

are all of the majority party in the representative house.1 In order to finance the wars with Louis XIV, parliament in 1602 directed the treasury to borrow a million pounds and to issue interest-paying bonds to the lenders, in this way establishing what is called the national debt. These bonds are always marketable, as investors have confidence in the government's ability to pay interest, and they are never redeemed by the treasury. Two years later a company of financiers was granted a charter to establish the Bank of England, which, in return for loans made to the government, is permitted to carry on a general banking business.

Anne was a Tory, because of her early associations, but she soon found herself forced to adopt Whig policies, namely, those of favoring commerce and of carrying on foreign wars. Marlborough, whose political influence in England was as great as his military renown, forced the queen to choose a Whig ministry. Notwithstanding several changes in the ministry, the death of Anne, in 1714, found the Whigs in control. George, a member of the Hanoverian family - descendants of James I's daughter (see p. 341) - was invited to take the throne, and England became engrossed in the problems of the eighteenth century, which properly belong to a later study of the development of modern Europe. Two great political customs became, during Anne's reign, settled parts of the workings of the English government: first, the ruler must choose the ministry from the majority party in the popular branch of parliament without regard to personal likes or dislikes; second, the ruler must approve and sign every bill passed by parliament.

The autocratic power of the French kings, which had been France at the developing for over a hundred years with intermissions of Close of Louis weakness, came to its height under the administrations of

XIV's Reign

¹ The leader of the cabinet is called the prime minister, or premier, As long as the cabinet's measures are passed by the House of Commons it remains in office; but if strong opposition to its policies is shown, the cabinet must either resign and permit a ministry of the opposing party to be formed, or request the ruler to dissolve parliament and call for a general election, in the hope that the people of the country may support it by returning those favoring its policies.

How the Reign of Louis XIV prepared the Way for the French Revolution

Richelieu, Mazarin, and Colbert. France had emerged from a second-rate position in European politics to that of mistress of affairs, able to dictate terms of peace or to bribe sovereigns to do her will. Her natural boundaries had been extended to the Rhine and the Pyrenees. The splendor of her court dazzled the eyes of all beholders. The government had been centralized into the hands of the ruler but at what a cost! The common people were discontented. over-taxed, starving; the rich were corrupt, idle, and frivolous: the ruler was an illustrious example of human vanity and weakness; trade and manufacturing were under heavy burdens; religious freedom had been stifled; the luxuries of the court were maintained only by ruinous loans obtained from foreign nations and individuals. The day of payment was to come; the wonder of it all is that it took three quarters of a century for the eyes of the people to be opened. The France of Louis XIV was little changed when the French Revolution broke upon her people, except that these conditions which we have described were a little less endurable and life less worth living. All this splendor was a hollow mockery, which the hands of the Revolutionists dashed to the ground.

132. A Summary of Early European History. — A modern historian has invented an apt illustration of the field of history by substituting for the hundreds of thousands of years during which mankind has lived on this earth a dial of twelve hours, each representing a term of approximately twenty thousand years. Each minute, then, would be equal to over three hundred years, and each second to over five years. Pursuing this fancy further, it is found that for over eleven hours written history was not made; at half-past eleven men began in the Nile valley to associate together to form the first rudimentary states; at a trifle before seven minutes of twelve the Greek civilization reached its flower; a minute later Rome ruled the world: another minute and Christianity had become the religion of the empire; another and Islam was being spread by the sword. Empire and papacy struggled for over half a minute; nationality arose, the rebirth of artistic and literary excellence took place, the Protestant Reformation — all lasted less than a minute. Yet it is this half-hour of history which is of vital importance to the beginner in historical study. It is necessary for any one who wishes to understand present day conditions to learn how mankind developed. The story of the storm of revolution in America and France and the thrilling details of the growth of the modern world have little meaning for one who understands nothing of the long struggle against privileged classes, religious intolerance, and economic distress. There is a certain continuity in the world's history before the French Revolution: thereafter a new Europe came forward as the inspiration both for old Europe and America.

Influenced by the teachings of the peoples of the Orient and of Egypt, the Greeks brought to a high degree of excellence their knowledge of art, architecture, literature, and philosophical thought. By their commercial dealings with their colonies throughout the Mediterranean they spread their civilization abroad. Conquered by the more practical Romans, they in turn were the conquerors, and there was transfused into the blood of Rome the intellectual and artistic refinement of Greece. Educated by the Greeks, the Romans became the masters and law-givers of Europe, until, weakened by economic errors and by a corrupt government, they surrendered the control of Western Europe into the hands of the more virile Germans, who built several small states upon the soil formerly ruled by the Roman Empire. From these states came the germs of the modern European kingdoms. During the period of transition from Roman dominion to the rise of national states, the Roman Catholic Church became the strongest factor in preserving medieval society from relapsing into barbarism. With the growth of national consciousness, the spiritual and political needs of society changed, and the medieval institutions declined in influence. The medieval church lost much of its authority over civil affairs, and the feudal organization of society was abandoned. Thereafter a new influence seemed to mould history. Art, science, literature, geographical knowledge, which had been slumbering for centuries, gradually put forth new energy, and, almost at the same time, a wide-spread movement for higher spiritual ideals began, which found its flower in the reformation, both within and without the Church. The enfranchisement of man in theological matters led to a desire for greater political liberty as well, and the growing colonial ventures of England first successfully tested democratic government. Yet on the continent of Europe the wasteful wars and extravagant excesses of the rulers were brewing a storm which was to sweep away the days of privilege, and usher in the modern era of constantly developing freedom. The world has grown somewhat better than it was in the earliest ages. The lives of millions of human beings are fuller because of the ideals and achievements of the men of the past.

SELECTED TOPICS AND QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

On a map of Europe show the territorial arrangements of the Peace of Utrecht. Describe the costumes of the age of Louis XIV. Describe Louis XIV's morning toilet and reception. Compare the works of Shakespeare and Molière. Discuss the rise of Brandenburg in European politics. Discuss England's policy toward Ireland during the reigns of William III, Anne, and George I. What was the effect on English politics of George, I's foreign origin and sympathies? Give a biographical sketch of the career of Marlborough. Explain the beginnings of England's colonial empire in India. What is the strategic importance of the fortress of Gibraltar? What were the terms and the importance of the Habeas Corpus Act? Explain the origin of grand opera. Discuss the influence of Madame de Maintenon on the course of French politics during the reign of Louis XIV.

The following topics are to be found in Robinson and Beard, Readings in Modern European History, Vol. I: Richelieu's account of the conditions in France when he became minister, 1; An English estimate of the services of Richelieu and Mazarin, 3; Extracts from Bossuet's work on kingship, 5; Saint-Simon's portrait of Louis XIV, 8; Entertainment at Louis XIV's court, 11; Reforms of Colbert, 12; Louis XIV's attempt to annex the Spanish Netherlands, 15; Louis XIV's War against the Dutch, 19; Louis XIV's encroachments upon the empire, 22, 33; William III's reasons for taking the English crown, 28; The revocation of the Edict of Nantes, 31; Declaration of war against Louis XIV, 36; Causes of the War of the Spanish Succes-

sion, 39; Formation of the Grand Alliance, 46; Marlborough's report of his campaign, 48; Terms of the Peace of Utrecht, 50.

The following topics are to be found in Beard, English Historians: The rise of British dominion in India, 443; The contest for Canada, 452.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCE READINGS

Robinson and Beard, Development of Modern Europe, Vol. I, pp. 1–49. Seignobos, Medieval and Modern Civilization, pp. 345–433: Scribners. Adams, Growth of the French Nation, pp. 194–234: Macmillan. Wakeman, European History from 1598–1715, pp. 133–165: Rivington.

Cheyney, Short History of England, pp. 480-543.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. IV, pp. 118-157: Macmillan (Richelieu). Vol. V, The Government of Louis XIV, pp. 1-31; Foreign policy of Louis XIV, pp. 32-63; French Seventeenth Century Literature and its European Influence, pp. 64-71; The War of the Spanish Succession, pp. 401-436; Peace of Utrecht, pp. 437-459; Party Government under Queen Anne, pp. 460-476; The Rise of Brandenburg, pp. 616-638; European Science in the Seventeenth and Earlier Years of the Eighteenth Centuries, pp. 706-741.

MAPS AND PLANS

Shepherd, *Historical Atlas*. Principal Seats of War and Treaty Adjustments, 1672–99, p. 125; Extension of the French Frontiers, 1601–76, pp. 126–127; Principal Seats of War, 1700–21, p. 129; Treaty of Utrecht, p. 133.



APPENDIX I

IMPORTANT EVENTS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY B.C.5000 First flowering of Egyptian culture Supremacy of the Bahylonian City-States: beginnings of culture in the Aegean 3500 2200 Cretan civilization 2000 Ancestors of the Romans invade Italy 1900 First Bahylonian Empire 1500 Height of Egyptian Empire: Phoenician colonization: Mycenean Age in Greece 1000 Kingdom of Israel founded 753 Traditional founding of Rome 621 Draco, the Lawgiver 600 Second Babylonian Empire 594 Solon 508 Clisthenes 492-479 War between Persia and Greece 461-431 Age of Pericles 431-404 Peloponnesian War 404-371 Spartan Supremacy 371-362 Theban Supremacy 359-336 Philip of Macedon 336-323 Alexander the Great 396-146 Roman wars of conquest 133-27 The change from republic to empire B.C. 27-A.D. 476 Nominal period of the Empire of Rome 476 Traditional date of the Fall of Rome 493 Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy 622 The Hegira 732 Charles Martel repulses the Mohammedans at Poitiers (Tours) 800 Charles the Great crowned Emperor of the West 842 Strasburg oaths 843 Treaty of Verdun 870 Treaty of Mersen 901 Death of Alfred the Great 962 Otto the Great crowned Emperor

1065-1106 Reign of Henry IV of Germany: Contest with Gregory VII

987 Election of Hugh Capet

1066 Norman Conquest of England

1096 First Crusade 1099-1144 Second Crusade 1122 Concordat of Worms 1142 Abelard 1154-1183 Contest between the Emperor and the Lombard towns 1154-1189 Reign of Henry II of England 1170 Saint Dominic 1182-1226 St Francis of Assisi 1187-1192 Third Crusade 1200-1215 Height of Papal power: Pontificate of Innocent III 1208 Albigensian Crusade 1215 Granting of Magna Carta 1232-1307 Edward I of England 1250 Close of the Medieval Empire 1264-1321 Dante 1265 Simon de Montfort's Parliament 1275 Roger Bacon 1295 Model Parliament 1296 Clericos Laicos 1302 The Estates General of 1302 1304-1370 Petrarch 1305-1370 Babylonian Captivity of the Church 1320-1384 Career of Wyclif 1346 Beginning of Hundred Years' War: Crecy 1348 Black Death 1350 Statutes of Provisors 1351 Statutes of Laborers 1356 Poitiers 1360 Peace of Bretigny 1378-1414 Great Schism 1381 Peasant's Revolt 1413-1422 Henry V of England 1414-1417 Council of Constance 1420 Treaty of Troyes **1429–1431** Joan of Arc 1453 Close of Hundred Years' War. Fall of Constantinople **1455-1485** Wars of the Roses 1467-1477 Career of Charles the Bold of Burgundy 1467-1536 Life of Erasmus 1469 Marriage of Isabella of Castile to Ferdinand of Aragon

1475–1543 Copernicus 1475-1576 Height of the Renaissance

1476 Introduction of Printing into England 1492 Death of Lorenzo the Magnificent 1492 Discovery of America 1491-1498 Career of Savonarola

1509-1547 Henry VIII of England

1509-1564 Life of Calvin

1519 Imperial election of Charles V

1520 Luther burns the Canon Law

1521 The Edict of Worms

1526 The Edict of Speyer

1529 Origin of the word Protestant

1529-1558 Protestant revolt in England

1534-1538 Founding of the Jesuit Order 1545-1563 The Council of Trent

1553-1558 Mary Tudor and the Catholic Restoration

1555 Peace of Augsburg

1556-1598 Phillip II of Spain 1558-1603 Reign of Elizabeth

1561–1626 Life of Francis Bacon

1564-1616 Life of Shakespeare

1566-1581 Revolt of the Netherlands

1572 The Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day

1587 Execution of Mary Oueen of Scots

1588 Defeat of the Armada

1589-1610 Henry IV of France

1598 The Edict of Nantes 1603-1625 Reign of James I of England

1604 Hampton Court Conference

1606 Virginia Charter

1607 Founding of Jamestown

1608 The Establishment of French colony at Quebec

1609 The Virginia Company's Charter

1609 Discovery of the Hudson River

1618-1648 Thirty Years' War

1619 Introduction of Negro Slavery into America: first Legislature meets

1620 Plymouth Settlement

1625-1649 Reign of Charles I of England 1626 Settlement of New Amsterdam

1628 Petition of Right

1629-1630 Massachusetts Bay Settlement at Salem

1639 Fundamental Orders of Connecticut

1640 The meeting of Long Parliament

1642 Beginning of Civil War

1643 Formation of the United Colonies of New England

1643-1715 Reign of Louis XIV

1648 Peace of Westphalia

1648 Pride's Purge

1649 Execution of Charles I

1649 Maryland Toleration Act

1651 Navigation Act

1653-1658 Cromwell's Protectorate

404 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

1660 Restoration of Charles II1670 Secret Treaty of Dover

1682 Philadelphia founded

1688 The Glorious Revolution

1689-1697 King William's War: Palatinate War

1701–1713 Queen Anne's War: War of the Spanish Succession 1744–1748 King George's War: War of the Austrian Succession

1754-1763 French and Indian War

APPENDIX II

A SELECT LIST OF BOOKS INCLUDING THOSE REFERRED TO IN THE SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER READINGS

Adams
Andrews
Chronicle
Bates and Coman English History told by English Poets Macmillan
Beard
Bede
Bemont and Monod Mediæval History
Bogart Economic History of the United States . Longmans
Botsford A History of the Ancient World Macmillan
Botsford The story of Rome as Greeks and Romans
tell it
Botsford Development of the Athenian Constitu-
tionLongmans
Bourne The Teaching of History and Civics Longmans
Bryant
Bryce
Bury History of Greece Macmillan
buly
Callendar Economic History of the United States .Ginn and Co. Cambridge Modern
History
Channing
Channing and Hart . Guide to American History
Cheyney Short History of England Ginn and Co.
Cheyney Readings in English History Ginn and Co.
Cheyney
Cheyney European Background of American His-
tory
Colby
HistoryLongmans

406 ESSENTIALS IN EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

Coman
Day History of Commerce Longmans Dewey Financial History of the United States. Longmans Du Pontet The Ancient World Longmans
Ely
Gardiner Atlas of English History Longmans Guerber Legends of the Middle Ages American Book Co. Guhl and Koner Life of the Greeks and Romans Scribner Gulick Life of the Ancient Greeks Appleton
Harpers Dictionary of Classical Antiquity Harpers Henderson History of Germany in the Middle Ages Macmillan Henderson Select Historical Documents of the Middle Ages Macmillan Hill Liberty Documents Longmans History Syllabus for Secondary Schools D. C. Heath & Co. Holm History of Greece Macmillan How and Leigh A History of Rome to the Death of Caesar Longmans
Jesop
KendallSource-Book of English HistoryMacmillan
Lanciani Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome Houghton, Mifflin Co. London, Jack Before Adam Macmillan
Mahaffy Old Greek Life American Book Co. Mahaffy What have the Greeks done for Modern Civilization? Putnam Mason Women's Share in Primitive Culture Appleton Munro Source-Book of Roman History D. C. Heath & Co. Munro History of the Middle Ages Appleton
Oman Seven Roman Statesmen Longmans Oman The Dark Ages Rivingtons

Pelham Outlines of Roman History Putnam Robinson An Introduction to the History of Western Europe Ginn and Co. Robinson Readings in European History Ginn and Co. Robinson and Beard Development of Modern Europe Ginn and Co. Robinson and Beard Readings in Modern European History Ginn and Co.
Seignobos History of Ancient Civilization Scribner Seignobos Mediæval Civilization Scribner Shepherd Historical Atlas Henry Holt & Co. Smith Martin Luther Houghton, Mifflin Co.
Tacitus Agricola and Germany Macmillan Tennyson Idylls of the King Any edition Thatcher and McNeal Source-Book for Mediæval History Scribner Thwaites The Colonies Longmans Trevelyan England in the Age of Wycliffe Longmans Traill Social England Putnam Tucker Life in Ancient Athens Macmillan
WakemanEuropean History, from 1598-1715RivingtonsWaterloo, StanleyThe Story of AbDoubleday, Page & Co.WebsterGeneral History of CommerceGinn and Co.WestAncient WorldAllyn and Bacon



INDEX

Armada, 300

Arminius, 140

ABELARD, 231 Absolute monarchy, 383 Academy, 63 Achean League, 60 Acheans, 27 Active supremacy, 298 Adrianople, 125 Aeneas, 27 Agincourt, 247 Agricola, 175 Aix-la-Chapelle, 147 Alaric, 125 Alexandria, 125 Alfred the Great, 50, 61, 63; generalship, 184; reform, 185 Alva, 204 Ancien régime, 300 Andros, 359, 365 Angevins, 205 Anglicans, 310 Anglo-Saxons, 179 Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, 185 Anjou, 205 Anne, Queen, 393 Antonines, 112 Apollo, 25 Arabia, 139 Aragon united with Castile, 275 Arbela, 50 Arches defined and illustrated, 230 Architecture, domestic, 227; medieval, 228; Elizabethan, 314; Gothic, 230; Romanesque, 230 Archon, 35 Argos, 25 Aristides, 40 Aristotle, 59, 61 Arius, 120

Artemisium, 41 Athanasius, 120 Athens, architecture and sculpture, 48; drama, 50; education, 52; government, 35; oligarchy, 35; tyranny, 37; literature, 40; philosophy, 55; slavery, 48 Attica, 25 Attila, 127 Augsburg, Confession, 288; League of, 302; Peace of, 288 Augustus, 181 Avignon, 256 BABYLON, 17 Bacon's Rebellion, 346 Bacon, Francis, 311 Bacon, Roger, 234 Baillis, 205 Balance of power, 307 Baliol, 211 Bannockburn, 212 Barrack emperors, 112 Bede, 183 Beggars of the Netherlands, 204 Benevolences, 255 Beotia, 25 Beowulf, 237 Berkeley, 346

Bible, Gothic version, 237; Wyclif, 251;

Bohemia, in the days of Huss, 259; in

Henry VIII, 300

Thirty Years' War, 327

Bill of Rights, 326

Black Death, 249

Black Prince, 245

Boccaccio, 267

410 Brahma, 30 Bretigny, 245 British Isles, geography, 173 Bruce, 212 Buddha, 39 Bull, papal, against Luther, 285 Bunyan, 335 Burgundy, 53, 154 Buttress, examples, 231, 232 Byzantine Empire, 128 Byzantium, 125 Cabinet government, 395 Cabot, 272, 340 Caedmon, 183 Caesar, Gaius Julius, rise, 96; formation of First Triumvirate, 97; campaigns in Gaul, 97; breach with Pompey, 98; master of Rome, 99; offices held by, 100; reforms, 100; death, 101 Caesar, Octavius Augustus, 107 Calais, 245 Calvin, 289 Calvinists, 290 Cannae, 79 Canossa, 157 Canterbury, 202 Canute, 187 Capetian, origin of family, 203; contest with Angevins, 204; governmental system, 205; problems of, 203; Caracalla, 112 Carcassonne, 124 Carolinas, 347 Cartier, 272 Caste system, 39 Castle, 226 Catiline, 96 Catharine de Medici, 200 Cathedral, 230 Catholic league, 327 Catholic reformation, 202 Cato, 88 Cavalier, 333

Caxton, William, 254

Chaeronea, 25

Cecil, Lord Burghley, 306

Chalons, 127 Chantries, 208 Charlemagne, 142; conquests, 143; statesmanship, 144; government, 145; patronage of learning, 143; coronation, 147; disruption of empire, 148 Charles Martel, 137 Charles the Bold of Burgundy, 276 Charles I of England, 316; execution of, Charles II of England, 324 Charles V, Emperor of Germany, possessions, 277; wars with Francis I, 270; at Diet of Worms, 285; attitude toward Protestantism, 285; abdication, 203 Charles VIII of France, 278 Charter, Great, 208 Charter, town, 221 Chaucer, 252 Chivalry, 237 Christianity, first persecution against, 111; second persecution against, 111; third persecution against, III; last persecution against, 110; reasons for persecutions, 116; primitive church organization, 120; medieval church organization, 121, 167 Church, the papacy, reasons for growth, 132; monasticism, reasons for, 134; Benedictine rule, 135; services of, 135; origin of papal states, 130; reformation in, 154; Cluny, 155; investiture, 154; simony, 155; celibacy of clergy, 155; heresy, 163; Albigenses, 164; Waldensians, 164; organization of medieval church, 167; papal bulls, 167; medieval and modern contrasted, 167; papal power, 168; parish priests, 168; transubstantiation, 168; excommunication, 168; clergy, regular, 168; secular, 168; friars, Dominicans, 170; Franciscans, 170; councils, Constance, 260; Nicean, 119; Whitby, 182 Cicero, 96 Circus Maximus, 113 Civil War in England, 319

Clarendon, Assize of, 201 Clarendon, Code of, 324 Clarendon, Constitution of, 201 Claudius, 110 Cleopatra, 101, 105, 107 Clergy, 168 Clericis Laicos, 256 Clermont, Council of, 161 Cleruchy, 33 Clisthenes, reforms of, 37 Clovis, 61 Cluny, 155 Codrus, 35 Coffee houses, 335 Colbert, 391 Coligny 290 Colonies, English, 342; French, 343; Greek, 29; Phenician, 21; Roman, 77; Spanish, 342 Colosseum, 113 Columbus, 271 Combat, trial by, 178, 238 Comitatus, 178 Commendation, 196 Commerce, origin, 6; Dutch, 331; Greek, 26; Phenician, 20; Roman, 77; Medieval, 223; obstacles to, 223; fairs, 225 Common law, 201 Commonwealth, 322 Compurgation, 178 Concordat of Worms, 158 Condottieri, 263 Confucius, 30 Connecticut, fundamental orders of, 358; New Haven, 358; settlement, 358 Constance, Council of, 260 Constance, heiress of Naples and Sicily, Constance, Peace of, 150 Constantine, 110 Constantinople, founded, 125; in Middle Ages, 128; taken by the Turks, 260 Copernicus (Kupernik), 273 Corinth, 25

Corinth, Congress of, 41, 58

Cortez, 271

Crassus, 94 Crecy, 245 Crete, 25 Cromwell, 321 Crusades, causes, 160; Council of Clermont, 161; Crusade against Albigenses, 164; First Crusade, 161; Second Crusade, 162; Third Crusade, 162; Fourth Crusade, 163; Childrens' Crusade, 163; orders, 165; effects, 164 Currency, debasement and reform, 312, 313 Cyrus, 37 DANELAW, 185 Danegeld, 191 Dante, 260 Danube river, 110 Darius, 38 Dark Ages, 263 Dauphin, 247 Decarchy, 57 Delian League, 44 Delos, 45, 25 Delphi, 25 Delphian oracle, 30 Diaz. 270 Dictatus, 155 Dissenter, 224 Divine right of kings, 138 Doge, 263 Dominic, 170 Domitian, 111 Doomsday Book, 192 Dorians, 30 Dover, secret treaty of, 331 Draco's laws, 36 Drake, Sir Francis, 309 Druidism, 175 Drusus, 92 Dyarchy, 107

ECK, 285

Edict of Nantes, 201

Council for New England, 355

Council of Blood, 205

Covenant, National, 310

Education, Athenian, 52; medieval, 231; Roman, 121; Spartan, 34; universities, 232; scholasticism, 233; unscientific character of, 236

Edward the Confessor, 188

Edward I of England, 210; legal reforms, 211; relations with Church, 211; financial measures, 211; conquest of Scotland, 211

Edward II of England, 212 Edward III of England, 242 Edward IV of England, 254 Edward V of England, 254 Edward VI of England, 300

Egbert, 183 Egean Sea, 25 Elamites, 17

Elbe river, 109 Elector, 281

Elis, 25

Elizabeth, 302 Enclosures, 312

England, Alfred, 184, 185; Augustine, 181; conversion of Kent, 180; conversion of Northumberland, 181; Danish conquest, 187; Edinburgh, 180; Edwin of Northumberland, 180; Norman conquest, 189; Saxon conquest, 179

English colonies in America, 341

Epaminondas, 57, 58 Ephesus, 25 Epicurean, 61

Epicurus, 61 Epirus, 25

Erasmus, 282 Eretrea, 39

Eretrea, 39

Ethelred the Unready, 187

Etruscan, 66 Eubea, 25 Euripides, 51

Excommunication, 168

FABIUS, 79
Fairs, 225
Ferdinand of Aragon, 276
Feudalism, origin, 195; Comitatus, 178, 195;

benefice, 195; growth, 195; infeudation, 195; subinfeudation, 195; commendation, 196; obligations of vassal and lord, 106; importance of, 106; fief, 105 Flanders, relation with England, 243 Flavian emperors, 111 Florence, 263 Forestalling, 225 France, absolutism in, 390; during One Hundred Years' War, 242; Protestantism in, 289; Francis I, 279; Francis of Assisi, 170 Franklin, Albany plan of colonial union, 371; life in Philadelphia, 277 Franks, conquests, 136; conversion, 136; rulers, 137 Frederick I, Barbarossa, 158, 162 Frederick II, 167 Frederick, Elector Palatine, 326 French and Indian Wars, 369 Friars, 170 Fronde, 385

Galileo, 276
Geneva, 289
George I of England, 393
Germans, comparison with Indians, 177;
legal forms, 178; religion, 178
Germany in the fifteenth century, 281
Ghent, 243
Gibraltar, 20, 394
Gild system, 222
Giotto, 264
Gladiatorial contests, 114
Gorgias, 54
Government, primitive, 6; tribal, 8;
Egyptian, 16; Homeric, 28; Spartan,

Egyptian, 16; Homeric, 28; Spartan, 33; Athenian, 35; Persian, 38; regal Roman, 72; Roman Republic, 103; dyarchy, 107; reorganized empire, 110; Charlemagne's empire, 144; Norman, 194; Angevin, 200; Capetian, 205; Tudor, 305; Stuart, 315; Commonwealth, 322; Protectorate, 323; English colonies, 346, 347, 353, 357, 359, 365, 371; Louis XIV, 385

INDEX 413

Gracchi, 88; Gaius, 90; Tiberius, 88 Granada, 276 Granicus, 59 Greek Catbolic Church, 133 Greek colonization, 29 Greek tyrants, 33 Gregory VII, 156 Gregory of Tours, 136 Guelph, 158, 160 Guise, 291, 308 Gustavus Adolphus, 327

Guelph, 158, 160 Guise, 291, 308 Gustavus Adolphus, 327 HADRIAN, 111 Hadrian's Wall, 111, 175 Hammurahi, 17 Hampton, 317 Hampton Court Conference, 352 Hannibal, 79, 80 Hansa, 225 Hapsburg, 280 Harold, 166 Harvey, 335 Hastings, 180 Hebrews, 19 Hegira, 141 Hellas, 25 Helots, 34 Henry II of England, 200 Henry III of England, 200 Henry IV of England, 247 Henry V of England, 247 Henry VI of England, 247 Henry VII of England, 254, 255, 306 Henry VIII of England, 295, 300 Henry IV of Germany, 156 Henry V of Germany, 158 Henry VI of Germany, 160 Henry IV of France (Navarre), 201 Henry the Navigator, 270 Hieroglyph, 11 Hildebrand (Gregory VII), 157 History, nature of, 3; objects, 3 Hohenstaufen, 158, 166, 167

Holbein, 267

Homer, 27

Holy Roman Empire, 153

Homeric Age, 27 House of Commons, 209 Hugh Capet, 203 Huguenots, 290 Hundred Years' War, 242 Hungary, 153 Huns, 125 Huss, John, 259 Hyksos, 14, 19

ILIAD, 27 India, 30 Infeudation, 195 Innocent III, 163, 166 Inquisition, 204 Institutes of Christianity, 289 Intercursus Magnus, 307 Investiture, 154 Ionian revolt, 30 Ionian Sea, 25 Ireland, the pale, 332; statute of Kilkenny, 332; Poyning's laws, 332; Ulster plantations, 332; under Cromwell, Irish Rebellion, 318 Isahella of Castile, 276 Islam, 130, 141 Israel, 20 Issus, 50 Italians, 68 Ithaca, 25

JERUSALEM destroyed, 111
Jesuits, 292
Jews persecuted in England, 211
Joan of Arc, 247
John of England, loss of French lands, 207; quarrel with barons, 207; quarrel with Papacy, 166
Judea, 20
Jugurthine War, 91
Jury, trial hy, 201
Justinian, 127

Kaaba, 140 Knighthood, 237 Knights Templar, 165 Knox, 308 Koran, 141

LACONIA 25 Lady Jane Grey, 301 Lancastrian family, 247 Langton, Stephen, 208 Languages, medieval, 236 Laud, William, 317 Lebanon Mountains, 20 Leonardo da Vinci, 267 Lepidus, 105 Lesbos, 25 Leuctra, 25 Livery and maintenance, 253, 255 Lollardry, 251 Lombards, 132 Lombard League, 159 Louis XIII of France, 208 Louis XIV of France, 382, 386 Loyola, Ignatius, 202 Luther, Martin, early life, 283; education, 283; monastic career, 283; career as teacher, 284; visit to Rome, 284; views on indulgences, 285; debate with Eck, 285; burns papal bull, 285; excommunication of, 285; before Diet of Worms, 286; outlawry, 286; attitude toward peasants' revolt, 287; close of career, 287, 280

Lützen, 328 Lycurgus, 33

MACEDON, 25

Magellan, 271
Magna Carta, 208
Magyars, 153
Manor, 215
Marathon, 39
Marcus Aurelius, 112
Marius, 92
Mark Antony, 105
Marlborough, 393
Mary of Burgundy, 276
Mary of England, 301

Mary of Modena, 325 Mary Stuart, 308 Maryland Toleration Act, 347 Maximilian of Germany, 276 Mayor of the palace, 137 Mazarin, 383 Mecca, 140 Medes, 37 Medici, 263, 290 Mercantile policy, 255, 306 Mersen, Treaty of, 149 Messina, 69, 79 Michael Angelo, 267 Milan, 263 Militia, 201 Miltiades, 49 Milton, 335 Minnesingers, 237 Minotaur, 35 Mithridates, 92, 95 Mohammed 03 Mohammedan conquests, 93 Monarchy (Tudor), 305 Monasteries, origin, 134; abolition in England, 298 More, Sir Thomas, 300 Morte d'Arthur, 230 Mortmain, 211 Museum, 63 Mycene, 25 NANTES, Edict of, 201, 301 Naples, 69

Nantes, Edict of, 291, 391
Naples, 69
Navigation ordinance, 329
Naxos, 45
Nebuchadnezzar, 18
Nero, 110
Netherlands, description of, 293, 362;
revoit of, 294; independence of, 328;
aggression of Louis XIV, 392
New England Confederation, 359
New Netherland, 365
Nibelungenlied, 237
Nicene Creed, 119
Nile River, 10

Nineveh, 18

Nogaret, 256 Normandy, origin of, 189 Northmen, 150, 184

ODOAKER, 127 Odyssey, 27 Oglethorpe, 351 Olympian games, 25 Oracle of Delphi, 30 Ordeal, 178 Ostracism, 37 Ostrogoths, 127 Ottoman Turks, 269 Otto the Great, 153

PAINTING, Italian, 267 Palace, school of the, 145 Parlement, 207, n.

Parliament, Long, 318; model, 209; nominated, 322; Rump, 322; Short, 318

Parthenon, 207 Pax Romana, 175

Peasants' Revolt in England, 251 Peasants' Revolt in Germany, 287

Peloponnesian War, 55 Peloponnesus, 25 Pericles, 45, 46, 56 Perioeci, 34

Persecution of Christians, 116, 119
Persia, government, 38; civilization, 38;

wars, 39

Peter the Lombard, 234 Petition of Right, 316

Phenicians, 20 Phidias, 48

Philip Augustus, 162

Philip the Fair of France, 254 Philip II of Macedon, 58

Philip II of Spain, 293

Philippi, 105 Phocis 25

Piers Ploughman, 252

Pilgrims, 352; Cambridge agreement, 353

Pippin, 137

Pisa, Council of, 258

Pisistratus, 37

Pizarro, 271

Platea, 25

Plato, 55

Pliny, 116

Po River, 66

Political parties, Athens, 40; medieval empire, 160; English civil war, 319; origin of modern English, 324

Poll Tax, 250

Pompeii destroyed, 115

Pompey, 94

Poor laws, Elizabethan, 313

Pope, origin of power,133; iconoclastic controversy, 133; position at height of power, 167; effect of great schism on, 256

Poundage, 211

Praxiteles, 49 Presbyterian church, 290

Pride's Purge, 322

Principate, 107 Printing, 254

Prometheus Bound, 51

Protectorate of Cromwell, 323

Protestant, origin of term, 288; revolt,

Protestantism in Germany, 288; France, 290; England, 295; Netherlands, 294; Switzerland, 280

Provisors, statute of, 258

Ptahhotep, 12

Ptolemy, 11, 62 Puritans, 311, 353

Pyramid, 11

Quakers, 360, 375

RAPHAEL, 267

Reaction, the Catholic, 292

Religion, Egyptian, 13; Homeric, 29; Persian, 38; Hindoo, 39; Roman, 73;

Mohammedan, 141; German, 178

Removal of burdens, 36

Renaissance, 261

Restoration in England, 323

Revolution in England, 1688, 325

Richard I of England (Lion Heart), 160,

207

Richelieu, 382 Rois Faineants, 137

Rome, origin, 66; legends, 70; primitive society, 71; regal government, 72; early religion, 73; origin of the republic, 75; government of the republic, 103; early wars, 75, 77; land policy, 77; colonies, 77; provincial system, 82; classes of society, 85; government of principate, 109; reorganized empire, 119; Roman empire, 120; bonds of union, 120; forces tending to disrupt, 124; education, 121; commerce, 121; sack of Rome by Alaric, 125; so-called fall of, 127

Roncaglia, 159 Rosetta Stone, 11 Roundheads, 333 Royal Society, 335 Rubens, 267 Ryswick, peace of, 393

SAGUNTUM 79 Salamis, 41 Salem witchcraft, 363 Salisbury Oath, 191 Sappho, 25 Sardis, 39 Savonarola, 278 Schism, the Great, 256 Scholasticism, 233 Scipio, Africanus Major, 80 Scipio, Africanus Minor, 88 Scone, stone of, 213 Scrooby Church, 352 Scutage, 201 Seneca, 110 Separatists, 319 Serf, 215 Serfdom, decline of, 218 Sertorius, 94 Shakespeare, 311 Ship money, 317

Shire, 191 Sicily, 159 Simon de Montfort, 200 Simony, 155

Slavery, Athenian, 35, 48; medieval, 215; Roman, 87, 125; Spartan, 34; Virginian.

Socrates, 55

Solon, 36

Sophist, 54 Sophocles, 51

Spanish Succession War, 393

Sparta, classes of society, 34; education.

34; government, 33

Spartacus, 94

Speyer, Diets of, 288

Sphinx, 13

St. Bartholomew's Day, 291

St. Dominic, 170

St. Francis, 170

St. Mark's Cathedral, 263

St. Peter's Cathedral, 267

Star Chamber, Court of, 255 Statutes of Laborers, 249

Statutes of Winchester, 192

Stoics, 61

Stoicism, 62

Stonehenge, 174

Strand laws, 225

Strafford (see Wentworth), 316

Strasburg Oath, 149

Subinfeudation, 195

Suleiman the Great, 278

Sully, 201 Sumerians, 17

Syracuse, 57, n

TACITUS, 176

Tancred, 160 Tarentum, 60

Tariff, medieval, 225; tonnage and pound-

age, 317

Tasso, 267

Tetzel, 284

Theatre, Greek, 51

Thebes, 25, 57

Themistocles, 54

Theodoric, 127

Thermopylae, 41

Theseus, 35 Thespis, 50 Thessaly, 25 Thirty-nine Articles, 311 Thirty Years' Truce, 46 Thirty Years' War, 326 Tiberius, 110 Tiberius Gracchus, 88 Tigris, 10 Tiryns, 25 Titian, 267 Titus, 111 Tonnage, 211 Tory, 325 Tours, 142 Towns, growth of political independence, 221; charters, 221; fairs, 225; leagues, 159, 225 Trajan, 111 Transubstantiation, 237 Trent, Council of, 293 Trial by jury, 201 Triumvirate, First, 97; Second, 105 Tudor family, 33 Tyrant, Greek, 105

ULFILAS, 237 Ulysses, 25 Universities, medieval, 231; student life, 233; scholasticism, 233 Urban II, 160 Usury, 233 Utopia, 300 Utrecht, Peace of, 394

VALENS, 125 Vandals, 126 Van Dyke, 2 Vasco da Gama, 271 Velasquez, 267 Verdun, Treaty of, 149 Vergil, 109 Verrazano, 272 Versailles, 388 Vespasian, 111 Virginia, charter, 1606, 344; charter, 1609, 345; first colonial legislature, 346; slavery in, 346; labor problems, 347; Bacon's Rebellion, 348 Visigoths, 125

WALLACE, 212 Wallenstein, 328 Wallingford, Treaty of, 200 Wars of the Roses, 253 Warwick, Earl of, 254 Wedmore, Treaty of, 185 Wentworth (Strafford), 316 Wessex, 183, 185 Westphalia, Peace of, 328 Whig, 325 Whitby, Council of, 182 William I of England (the Conqueror), conquest of England, 100; relations with the Papacy, 156, 192 William the Silent, 295 William III of Orange, 325 Williams, Roger, 353 Winchester, statutes of, 192 Witan, 191 Wolsey, Cardinal, 298, 307 Wool trade, 209 Worms, Concordat of, 158; Diet of, 285; Edict of, 285 Wyclif, 251, 259

XENOPHON, 52 Xerxes, 40

Zeno, 61 Zoroaster, 38



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